

Exploring Post-Critical Incident Support Training in a UK Financial Institution: A Case-study

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Declaration and Word Length

I hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

Having applied and been granted approval to exceed the required word count (exclusive of personal statement, appendices, list of references and bibliographies but including, diagrams and tables) the thesis length is:
50,500 words

Abstract

The thesis is a case-study set in a large UK Financial Organisation which post the September 11th 2001 attack on the World Trade Building in New York (9/11) was faced with the prospect of having to develop strategies and training for employees who potentially might experience a critical incident. A critical incident, as used in this thesis, being a disaster that disrupts business continuity. The 9/11 attack is not a consideration *per se* but was the impetus for the Organisation's review of its business continuity strategy. Post-incident support for staff was an important element of the business continuity strategy review as the protection of staff was considered essential for ensuring business continuity. The Organisation considered that training may be the best approach to offering such support.

The focus of the thesis is post-critical support training. In exploring the demand for post-critical incident support training, the paper argues that at a time of (generally perceived) increased levels of anxiety and insecurity within the workplace, the potential for a critical incident to occur is considered a real possibility. In responding to such threats, employees are called upon to develop their skills/knowledge beyond that of their job requirements. In effect, they are required to learn about the effects of a disaster on their own performance and that of colleagues.

Such learning has implications for trainers, and those requiring training, as the criteria for offering post-critical support training differs from other training programmes. Within post-critical support training, the focus is not the acquisition of specific skills or factual job-related knowledge but on developing the employee's emotional self-awareness. Unlike most other vocational training, it will not enhance current job performance nor organisation profits. In deed, it is highly probable that employees will never be called upon to put their learning into practice. The thesis argues that such differences separate post critical incident support training from other training programmes and brings into question the purpose and the benefits for developing post-critical

support training.

In developing the argument, the thesis uses a case-study method drawing upon the work of Yin (2003) and Stake (2000). The case-study used both quantitative and qualitative sources of data. However, the main body of data is qualitative and was gathered from thirty-two semi-structured interviews based on narrative and psycho-social research approaches (Holloway, & Jefferson, 2000). The thirty-two participants interviewed all had had experience of being involved in a critical incident either directly, as victims, or indirectly in the planning and delivering of post-incident service provision. The purpose of the interviews was to explore participants' understanding of a critical incident and how training might support post-critical incident recovery.

In considering the case for training, the thesis explores issues relating to post-critical incident training and in doing so, attempts to place workplace learning within a wider educational context. As part of this, it considers the role of human resources and how different human resource models affect approaches to training. The thesis argues that the economic imperative, as reflected within a 'hard' human resources approach, is too narrow a focus. What is required is an holistic learning approach to training that is centred on a humanistic educational model, as reflected in a 'soft' approach to human resources. This model of training would be the most beneficial, to both employee and employer, should a critical incident occur.

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Statement to accompany thesis

List of Assignments Completed

- A comparison between college based NVQ courses and work based assessments. (*Methods of Enquiry 2*)
- Theoretical and Conceptual Issues in Educational Research. (*Methods of Enquiry 1*)
- Aspects of Professionalism within Education. (*Foundations of Professionalism*)
- Question One: How does our ontology, epistemology, methodology, and ethical values influence approaches to research. (*Advance Research Methods*)
- An Analysis of Social Work Education Policy with Specific Reference to Ball's 'Policy Cycle Process' Model. (*Post Compulsory Education*)
- Quality Assurance: Issues for Social Work Education and Training (*Post Compulsory Education*)
- 'A stranger in my own land' - Responding to Change: Self-Perception of the Changing Role of the Lecturer within a College of Further Education - A Case-study. (*Institutional Focus Study*)

NB: Methods of Enquiry 2 was set before Methods of Enquiry 1.

Motivation for undertaking the doctorate

It is difficult to recall with certainty what my prime motivation was when first deciding to apply for the doctoral programme. Retrospectively, there was no single dominant factor but there were a number of inter-connected 'themes'. First, I had a desire to return to studying. Prior to my applying for the programme my last period of formal study, other than for my D 32/33, 34/36 NVQ Assessor and Verifier Awards 1997, was in 1993. I completed a Pg. Dip. Management (University of Westminster, part-time 1992) and Pg. Dip. Counselling (University of Herts., part-time, 1993). I list these two awards as they have both contributed to my doctoral research. I therefore had a range of

areas of interest, including social work, which I wished to pursue.

At the time I applied for the programme I was working as Head of HE in Social Studies in an FE college. I was aware that, other than my immediate teaching areas, I knew very little about education as regards to policy formation or the process of learning. It made sense therefore that any further study be within education. Having already an MA in Health and Public Administration, I did not wish to read for another masters degree and decided that the professional doctoral programme seemed the best option. It offered me the flexibility to explore areas that interested me but within an educational framework. It also offered a greater degree of companionship and support than a traditional PhD programme, which I valued.

Development of research interests

At the time of starting my Eddy, (Jan 1998), professional social work education had already been reformed and was under review for further changes. The Dearing Report (1997) was impacting upon FE colleges and there was a general feeling of change. It was against this background that I started to explore related aspects of education, professional education (primarily social work), and workplace training. As mentioned earlier, I did not start the programme with a specific issue to research but what I have found is that these three areas have been constant themes within my research.

When first embarking on any journey, it is usual to start with the familiar progress to the 'unknown'. In a similar way this reflects my own 'research journey'. My first paper was a comparison of workplace and college based NVQ portfolio building. The area was one that I felt comfortable with, having been extensively involved with both settings. Retrospectively, it is interesting that at the time I decided to take a quantitative approach. As I came to realise later in the programme, the biography of the researcher is reflected in their approach to their research. As referred to in my thesis, this initial research study used the methodology familiar to me from my undergraduate psychology modules.

This first paper also helped to re-orientate me back to academic study. In addition, it gave me the opportunity to consider wider issues regarding competency based learning, such as the political dimension of educational policy.

Development as a researcher

My second paper helped to develop my critical awareness when reading research studies. Via the critical evaluation of other researchers' work I learnt to question, at a greater depth, many assumptions about quantitative research. Often the most significant learning experiences can present as naïve, which I would suggest, is the case in this instance. It was the start of my own development as a researcher and enabled me to locate myself within the educational research field.

In critiquing a piece of quantitative research I became aware of the limitations of the approach. In particular, that the reality it portends to represent can be a distorted one. It helped to develop my understanding as to what makes 'good research' beyond the research norms of validity and reliability of findings. For example, the power the researcher can accrue by defining the indicators to be used in the study.

In questioning others, it also enabled me to question aspects of my own approach to research. In particular, how accepting I was of research findings that supported my own line of argument and assumptions. I had the opportunity to consider these issues further in my advanced research module. Within the assignment I was able to explore aspects of my own philosophical assumptions in relation to the research process. It provided a framework that helped me to identify my own stance as a researcher. For me, it illustrated how the integrity and honesty of the researcher is of paramount importance to the research process. In effect, it marks the difference between 'good' research and 'poor' research.

Development of Professional Identity

In tandem with my development from the research modules, was that from the foundations of professionalism and specialist modules. It is to the credit of the programme that whilst retrospectively I can separate learning from the different modules, there is a sense of *the whole being greater than the sum of its parts*. The modules provided the tools for exploring issues within contemporary post-compulsory education, including measuring quality, policy formation, and seeking to understand trends within educational policy.

Apart from greatly increasing my knowledge about such areas, the modules helped my progression from being a 'social worker' involved with education to being a social care/social work educator and then beyond to being confident enough to undertake research into workplace training outside the fields of social work and education.

Broadening nature of study

One of the additional bonuses of the programme was the opportunity to meet and engage with other educationalist professionals. In particular, I found many of the lectures inspiring, especially in relation to areas that I would not have initially had much interest in. For example, sessions on the use of statistics and multi-level analysis, provided a lively contrast to sessions on qualitative research. Guest speakers were also a source of inspiration, particular when I could identify with the difficulties with which they also struggled. Such occasions were both entertaining and informative. I found it exciting and stimulating to engage in discussions about educational policy with lecturers of the calibre of Martin Hammersley, Gareth Williams, Ken Spurs, Louise Morely and Stephen Ball (to name a few).

Such lectures, together with the conferences I was able to attend, provided practical demonstrations of the need for educational research to be broad in

its outlook and engage in debate. Lecturers' willingness to identify limitations in their own research, and the encouragement for students to do similarly, created an environment conducive to critical discussion. This was further enhanced by the active engagement of other participants who came from a wide range of educational work settings and locations. Their input and willingness to share information provided further resources upon which to draw.

The concept of critical examination and feedback was mirrored in the comments given on drafts and submitted assignment papers. Receiving, and seeing others receive such constructive criticism, enabled me to develop my own confidence as a researcher. As such, in all the teaching and workshop sessions, not only was I developing my own research interests but I was exploring my own approaches to research; the different ways of conducting research and producing knowledge.

Insider Research and Thesis

I have chosen to comment upon these two studies together for although different in setting they are linked, as with my first paper, by an interest in the workplace being a place of learning and worthy of research. Both studies might be regarded as the concrete expression of the taught modules. They each contained elements gleaned from the teaching. In as far as my previous paper, the Institutional Focus Study (Novak, 2003), was the forerunner, it proved invaluable in helping me to develop my research techniques, presenting a cohesive argument based on the literature and my own findings, and gave me the experience of producing a clearly structure report. I drew upon all these learning experiences and skills in completing my thesis. Moreover, I consider that both papers demonstrated that I am comfortable taking a qualitative approach, and not restricted to using quantitative methods. As such it marked my development as a researcher.

In both studies, organisations were undergoing and responding to change and accordingly, as with all changes, it was producing insecurity in staff. My

presence, particularly within the IFS, might have been regarded as a further intrusion on participants work life. For this reason, I think it important to recognise the contribution made by participants. They elected to take part in the study for my benefit. Therefore, I consider one of the most important aspects of the two studies was for the researcher to ensure that the interview process was not harmful to participants (Ribbens, and Edwards, 1998), an issue raised in both papers. This is part of the trust and ethical considerations that are incumbent on the researcher to address. It was integral to the integrity of the research and any claim for producing knowledge that the studies might make.

Effects on Professional Practice

The central part of the programme has been in developing my own self-awareness of education and training issues. The journey though the programme has included considering policy issues, critically questioning other research and decision making, to finally conducting my own research studies. Inevitable when completing such a long journey there is a question of whether it has been worth the effort.

However unfocused my initial motivations were, I have a sense of completing what I set out to achieve. I do have a clearer understanding of education, particularly workplace training and social work. Regardless of my day-to-day involvement with such areas of training I would not have had the depth of knowledge or the skills to question issues that I now have (and do) since embarking on the programme.

An important aspect of learning about the research process has been to listen, and be willing to hear, what is being expressed by others. This applies as much to colleagues, and my supervisor, as it does to participants being interviewed. In this I have been able to transfer my knowledge and skills from my social work/counselling training to my research, educational and other workplace settings. As part of this, I consider that one of the most significant

learning aspects of the programme was developing the habit of reflecting on and critical evaluating my professional life (and personal life also). I feel that I have gained the skills to look beyond the immediate issues and consider wider implications. As such, I have developed a sense of balance that allows for more than one opinion to be possible. This has been supported and enhanced by having to give close attention to the research literature of different disciplines.

In conclusion I would make two comments. First, the programme did enable me, by building my confidence and skills, to undertake research in training for private organisations. This is a situation that I could not have imagined doing prior to the programme. Secondly, since embarking on the programme I feel that my teaching has benefited from my improved understanding of research methods and assignment writing. For example, when reviewing literature for assignments, students were encouraged to identify the type of data that was being used by the researcher. In this way, I have regarded the doctoral programme as part of my own continual professional development as a lecturer.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my long-suffering family and friends for the support that they have given me, not just in completing the thesis but throughout the course. Special thanks also to my supervisor, Bryan Cunningham, who managed to give support, motivation, and inspiration without increasing the stress of completing the thesis. I would also like to thank Barbara Scott and Lynn Bristow for editing the thesis and the support they have given.

Foreword: The Origins of the Thesis

Note: i. For the purposes of confidentiality, throughout the thesis I refer to the subject as the Organisation (capital 'O') to distinguish from the general use of the word.

ii. Double quotation marks have been used when reporting participants' comments and single quotation marks for citation and other references.

The aim of this section is to establish the originality of the thesis, which is part of the thesis regulations.

The subject of the thesis developed out of a staff training needs analysis (TNA), that I was employed to undertake for an international financial organisation. This particular TNA was a departure from the research the Organisation routinely commissioned in that it was not directly concerned with financial business *per se* but with wider issues involving staff welfare and protection. The project included interviewing staff who had been involved in a work based 'critical incident'. The Organisation required a researcher with a background in mental health and counselling, which I have.

The TNA commission occurred at a time when I was in the process of identifying a suitable thesis research topic for my EdD. It therefore offered me the opportunity to explore what, for me, was a new area of education, private sector training. On agreeing to undertake the TNA study, I sought and obtained permission from the Organisation's Training Section to use data from the TNA and to gather additional data for use in my own research for my thesis. The only stipulation the Organisation made was that, for reasons of confidentiality, they should not be identifiable in any part of the thesis. This I agreed to, although, it resulted in not being able to include copies of documentation in relation to policies and written permissions.

As the training needs analysis acted as a catalyst for the thesis, the two studies shared common ground. The primary link was the subject matter itself, *critical incidents*. For the Organisation, a critical incident is regarded as an

event, mainly some form of disaster, which disrupts the Organisation's business continuity. As used in the thesis the usage reflects that pertaining to disaster management and trauma management and therefore, may have been more accurately termed *trauma-inducing critical incident*. Unless indicated to the contrary, it is the potential for trauma that is being referred to when the term *critical incident* is used in the thesis.

Wider aspects of the concept and critical incident techniques are considered in Chapter 2.

Other commonalities include the initial design and part of the data, particularly the data from the initial twenty-two interviews. The uniqueness of both studies and the differences that separated them, are seen when comparing the purpose, data-gathering, analysis of results, use of findings, and the target audience of each study (as reflected in the style of the completed reports – Appendix 1).

Regarding purpose, Punch (2000, p.17) distinguished between research that focuses on 'problems' and that which focuses on 'questions'. This thesis is concerned with the latter. This factor is crucial, as it separates the purpose of the thesis research from that of the TNA. The purpose of the doctoral study was to explore aspects of workplace training. It is this that positions the research within an educational research field as opposed to other academic areas, for example, management strategy. The purpose of the TNA was to identify problems, and make recommendations for solutions.

The target audience for the TNA report was the Board of Directors whilst that for the doctoral study was an academic audience. The demands of these two audiences are very different, as reflected in the style of writing and presentation of both reports (Hammersley, 2003). For example, in regarding the TNA report, the main concern for the Organisation was 'outcome' not 'process'. The integrity of the research process, (the design, data-gathering, analysis and presentation of results) was not a central issue. Such issues, it was assumed, would be addressed by virtue of the study being undertaken by a competent researcher. The scrutinising of the research process, so integral

to academic research, was not a concern for the Organisation. For example, the TNA draft report included a section on methodological issues and the theoretical bases for the analysis of data. This was discarded for the final TNA report as:

“The Board does not have the time to read that amount of detail. Just say something like, was analysed in the usual way”,

(Advice from the HR liaison worker).

This is not a criticism of the Organisation, but a statement of how the aims and priorities of policy makers differ from those of researchers (Hammersley 2003). Finally, the findings and conclusions for both studies are completely different; those of the TNA centred on concrete recommendations for training programmes and the formation of business policy. The findings of the thesis contribute to the understanding/knowledge of workplace-based education in order to enhance professional practice. Appendix 1, *The Management Summary* taken from the full TNA report illustrates many of the above points in relation to style, purpose, and content.

Chapter 1 Introduction

The attack on the World Trade Center was a major critical incident that affected people well beyond those who had an initial involvement (Sattler, 2003; Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). At a personal level it was traumatic in the way it affected so many people's sense of 'being' leaving them feeling vulnerable and insecure. But regardless of the human tragedy, 9/11 was primarily an assault on financial institutions which came close to causing global economic meltdown (Sattler, 2003). The British Financial Services Authority (FSA: the agency given the responsibility by the government for monitoring the effects on the finance industry), together with financial institutions were quick to recognise their vulnerability to such incidents. The immediate post-incident task was to ensure the continuation of the world financial markets.

'Although it is still too early to form a definitive view about the full implications of the terrorist attacks of 11 September, the global macroeconomic implications seem to have been contained. ...Terrorist attacks of this magnitude are an unprecedented risk for which firms and regulators now need to prepare.' (FSA, 2002)

As part of their long-term response, the Financial Services Authority (FSA), insisted that major financial organisations reviewed their business continuity provision (FSA 2003).

It was as part of the Organisation's own review of their business continuity strategy that the training needs analysis concerning post-critical incident support (PCIS) was commissioned. As such for the thesis, borrowing from Cunningham's concept of a critical incident, 9/11 is:

'.. an event ... that creates a significant disturbance of our understanding of important principles or of effective practice, and which following a period of focused reflection will be experienced as a turning point' (Cunningham, 2008, p.)

For the thesis 9/11 acts as a convenient signpost in which to explore the

implications for workplace post-critical incident support training in the aftermath of the event. Such training aims to equip employees to survive critical incidents that, potentially, may occur in the workplace.

The focus of the thesis is the educational aspects of workplace training. It is this that locates the study within education rather than a management, human resources, or other related discipline. The thesis argues that in coping with the potential hazards of contemporary working environments, staff have to learn how best to cope with increased levels of anxiety and insecurity. Unlike other aspects of vocational/workplace training, there is a high probability that they will never be called upon to put their learning into practice. This affects both delegates who need motivation to learn, and trainers needing to ensure the effective use of their training resources. Such training is different from the other training programmes as the focus is on developing emotional self-awareness rather than the acquisition of specific skills or factual job-related knowledge. In developing the argument, the thesis questions the appropriateness of the learning approaches to training, particularly a rational-instrumentalist approach which dominates much of workplace training (Collins, 1991).

My Own Research Interest

Whilst planning for the TNA what started to intrigue me was that the Organisation, in commissioning such research, appeared to link training with problem solving. In particular, the assumption that abstract issues, such as individual emotional well-being, could potentially be best met by a generic training programme for all employees, a 'one-size' fits all approach.

When reflecting on this, it appeared that, training seemed to be leading business strategy development rather than emerging from it. This was confirmed during discussions with the project liaison manager. He agreed that within the Organisation's culture there was an expectation that identifying a training issue would resolve wider issues. He cited an example whereby a strategy to increase business in a particular sector was based upon

identifying training for staff in customer service. The initial problem had not arisen from staff training needs, but training had been identified as a potential solution to the problem of losing market share to competitors.

Based upon my own experiences, I would suggest that the Organisation was no different in their assumptions regarding training as a way of solving strategy problems from others that I have worked with, both in the private and public sectors. In relation to this thesis, I would argue that such assumptions reflect the Organisation's use of human capital theory to guide their approach to management. Under a human capital model, the primary purpose of vocational education and training, and by extension workplace training, is to develop the business (Thompson, 2001). This is achieved by developing the assets and capital of the business of which the workforce is regarded as a major asset. Therefore, employee training may be regarded as an investment that aims to improve employees' skills acquisition that will enhance workplace performance or problem solving. In this way, the Organisation attempts to meet its own business needs by meeting the identified training needs of the staff (Beardwell and Claydon, 2007).

Meeting training objectives is the responsibility of Human Resources managers and post-critical support raises two particular issues for them. The first issue is that post-critical incident training does not seem to fit readily into the contemporary VET/workplace learning hegemony. This hegemony, or *Training Gospel* as it is called by Jordan and Strathdee (2001), is one of 'high skill/high value-added orthodoxy' with its roots within a 'market-led or enterprise approach' (Jordan and Strathdee, 2001, p. 391). Within this approach training might be regarded as having:

'..a subtly concealed ideological agenda, which is primarily concerned with the subordination of workers' interests to those of employers.'
(Jordan and Strathdee, 2001, pp. 391-2))

Discussions with human resources managers and related external service suppliers (counselling and debriefing services) would indicate that such an approach had a strong presence in the Organisation's existing training

provision. Although, the interest of both need not be in conflict. Indeed, I would suggest, that the subject matter, *'how best to survive a critical incident'*, would be one of joint interest.

What makes critical incident training markedly different is that the rationale for offering training did not seem to comply with the Organisation's usual criteria. That is, potential knowledge or skills acquisition that do not directly relate to enhancing work performance or increased business growth. For example, skills required by the workforce would include an awareness of personal emotional health and well-being, neither of which are directly job-related. In effect, this, as described by one HR manager, would place post-critical incident support training in:

'a unique position outside of the Organisation's current training portfolio'.

This brings into question how existing approaches to HR can accommodate this 'maverick' training. A situation that seems to reflect Usher and Solomon's observation:

'...with the replacement of what constitutes legitimate knowledge (as constituted by disciplines and therefore outside the organisation) to that constituted by performance agreements (and therefore with its control), the organisation can also ensure that the 'right' performative things are learnt.

(User and Solomon, 1998, p.6)

Effectively, the post-critical incident training may create a potential dilemma for the Organisation as to how HR managers resolve the tension between the need to control and the need to develop staff, (Storey, 1995).

A second issue for HR managers relates to the purpose for offering training. If, as suggested, post-incident support training appears to challenge the existing VET/workplace training hegemony of the Organisation and seems to offers little as regards to Organisational control of its workforce or business developing, then it brings in to question the purpose for offering such training.

Exploring the research question: Aims and Objectives

It was suggested in the previous section that developing training policies for trauma-inducing post-critical incident support raises issues for the Human Resources section of the Organisation. In particular, it raises the question as to the purpose for offering post-critical support training. The special circumstances that a critical incident, such as 9/11, creates brings into question *how* those involved experienced the incident and *why* they felt training might be having been beneficial in helping them to cope in the post-incident aftermath. Therefore, it was considered that exploring such questions might also offer suggestions as to what learning approach may best serve post-critical support training. In addition, the suggestion of a training solution to post-critical incident support also raises issues pertinent to education. In particular, whether an holistic approach, rather than one base in an instrumentalist/rationalist approach, is required. An instrumentalist/rationalist approach, as Jansen and van der Veen (1996) described, focuses on:

'..... the transfer of knowledge and skills, giving less attention to fundamental reflection on what is taught. (Jansen and van der Veen, 1996, p. 129)

In so doing, it assumes the instrumentalist belief, that *'if we do one thing it will lead to another'* Armstrong, 1999, p. 111).

Yin (2003) considered that *'how'* and *'why'* questions best lend themselves to being explored via a case-study method. Therefore, the thesis aimed to address the following questions:

How does the working environment differ from that prior to 9/11, and what, if any, are the nature of these differences?

The objective was to use the case-study to explore the phenomenon (Yin, 2003) i.e. critical incident, and whether participants experienced the workplace as being increasingly insecure.

Given that all participants had had some involvement with a critical incident:

How do participants' experiences of critical incidents inform their understanding of their learning/educational/ training needs?

The objective was to explore whether there is a role for training in supporting post-critical incident recovery and if so, what such training might be.

Within an Organisational context: Why is training perceived as the solution to offering post-critical incident support?

The objective was to explore the purpose of offering such training. In doing so, it questioned the educational imperative for workplace training. In addition, it questioned existing training approaches and considered whether an holistic approach rather one based in an instrumentalist/rationalist approach may be more appropriate for post-critical incident support training.

The first two questions aimed to explore the perceived need for post-critical incident training and for whom it might be appropriate. Together they may be regarded as forming the foundations for the thesis. The third question was concerned with the Organisation's rationale for offering such training and the different purposes that training may be expected to address. Accordingly, the exploration of 'purpose', as a key educational component, was central to the thesis.

Issues of Professional Relevance

In exploring issues related to post-critical support training the thesis considers the implications of such training for employees, employers and those engaged in workplace training. It calls upon all to reconsider the purpose of training and to recognise the overlap between the needs of employers and of staff. As such, the area is one of professional relevance.

In addition, the thesis attempts to make a wider contribution to the field of vocational education and training. In particular, it aims to aid understanding of four areas:

- i. Understanding the training needs of staff working in a 'Post September 11th World'.
- ii. Contributing to the research literature relating to training needs for staff coping with a post-critical incident within the workplace.
- iii. Timely nature of research and application to other settings.
- iv. Researching sensitive areas.

Understanding the training needs of staff working in a Post Sept 11th world:

Eric Hobsbawn, summarising the 20th century commented:

'....in an increasingly globalised transnational world, national governments coexist with forces that probably have more influence on people's everyday lives... Governments, he suggests, particularly the least developed ones, have in reality little influence on what happens on people's lives,....'
(Hobsbawn, 1994, page not given, cited in Bourn, 2001, p. 325).

One of the tenets of the thesis is that global terrorism is one such 'force'. It is not only damage that terrorist acts *per se* cause, but also how such acts symbolise increasing insecurity (Landau, 1997). The 9/11 attack on the World Trade Centre illustrates the effects that unexpected traumatising incidents can have on an individual's sense of security. It helps to account for the demand to increase security. Having to cope with uncertainty and the potential threat of a major critical incident, such as a terrorist attack, now has to be assimilated into the routine of daily living.

For many people, the activity of working is now perceived as potentially more dangerous. Previously, discussions on vocational education and training (VET), life-long learning, and the globalisation of education, have not been required to address such issues (Legge, 2005). Understandably, therefore, training to support employees that have experienced such incidents is a new dimension. Whether it is the deliberate targeting of an organisation, (as with London Transport in 2005), or the wider disruption of services, (airport travel London, August 2006), the effects of terrorism are now felt globally. Increasingly, government and employers need to make training provision for workers that reflects not just terrorism but the increased insecurity of working

life from other areas, such as increased violent attacks on staff.

Such a position is at variance with other aspects of employees' health and welfare. For example, employers have long recognised the *1974 Health and Safety in the Workplace Act* (Health and Safety Executive - HSE, 1999) as an important component of work. Correspondingly, within the study, participants had all received appropriate training. Such training tended to have been based on clearly defined quantifiable risks that had been assessed as to their potential harm and frequency of occurrence. The dangers associated with specific risks (Parton, 1994) and how best to minimise or avoid these risks, then became the focus of training.

Being able to identify and quantify such risks helps motivate delegates as there is a greater, immediate sense of purpose. With a major critical incident, the unexpected nature of the event makes this much harder to do (Myers, 1994). Similarly, the effects on the individual are very difficult to predict. Correspondingly, staff cannot be prepared to handle the eventuality of such incidents occurring in the way that it may be possible for other, assessable, safety issues. The situation may be one beyond their experience or too traumatising to make a rational response (Myers, 1994). The lack of preparation, or the failure to keep to Organisation emergency guidelines, can lead to increased levels of anxiety for those who may be involved in a critical incident. The study helps identify the need for understanding peoples' reactions at such times.

ii. Contributing to the research literature - Lack of research of training needs in coping with a post-critical incident within the workplace:

As will be discussed in Chapter 2 most of the literature concerning vocational education and training (VET) tends to be dominated by the experiences of educational institutions, and authors are correspondingly drawn from the same ranks. While there is an extensive literature on vocational education and training (as evidenced by the *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*), this tends to be linked to educational settings, for example, modern

apprenticeships and National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) training. There is little concerning an organisation's own 'in house' schemes. What is available tends to be located within Human Resources literature and does not fully expand on the educational implications. Literature specifically relating to the education and training needs of staff to help them meet the threat of a major critical incident was not identified. There were many medical and other similar areas of work, such as counselling, that identified positive self-help techniques but none related to workplace educational/training issues. In this way the study aims to add to the literature.

iii. Timely nature of research and Application to other settings:

Although the case-study was based upon a single financial institution, in the light of world events other organisations, both within and outside of the financial sector, are being requested by national bodies, such as the Financial Services Authority, to ensure business continuity. The study might therefore be useful in identifying barriers to the development of appropriate training for other organisations wanting to make similar provision for staff. In this way it echo's Selby-Smith *et al* (1998) comment on research within VET decision-making:

'The research enterprise is accumulative. Much research does not stand on its own as a piece of work but adds to that which existed before. This accumulating body of knowledge contributes in decision-making to the creation of a climate of opinion and the development of a set of ideas, so that at any given time certain ideas, approaches or ways of thinking are in 'good currency', whilst others are not or are no longer. Over time, research's main contribution may be to the 'big ideas'. A number of the 'big ideas' preoccupying senior VET decision-makers in recent years are grounded in research.'

(Selby-Smith *et al.*, 1998, p. 21)

iv. Researching sensitive areas:

Concerning the wider research community, the study aims to add to the body of literature concerning interviewing participants who have experienced high levels of stress or trauma. Having, in many incidents, suffered loss, they are in

the research process being asked to give more of themselves. The study addresses some of the ethical issues, particularly those relating to dealing with people who are emotionally vulnerable.

In this way, the thesis aims to illustrate the need for data to be gathered in a sensitive manner when researching potentially distressing issues. In addition, the thesis highlights the contribution that participants made and the potential personal risk they took with their own mental health by taking part in the research study.

Case-study Setting

Yin (2003) cautions against case-study research aping the thick descriptions of ethnographic research. Nevertheless, in order to understand aspects of the research some understanding of the setting is required. This information was supplied by the Human Resources liaison Manager and HR Training Managers.

The setting for the case-study was a major international financial organisation. As part of their business continuity planning, the Organisation was considering how best to develop strategies and training for employees who potentially might experience a trauma-inducing critical incident. The settings included local high street sites, call-centres, overseas trading, support services and administration. These latter categories encompassed the headquarters staff and staff responsible for ensuring the continuity of business activity when an emergency or a major incident occurs. In total, the work force numbered about six thousand within a staff structure consisting of six hierarchical levels. Given an initial limited knowledge of the Organisation and the way it functioned, the support of the Human Resources (HR) Department was crucial, in particular, in the initial identifying of participants who would agree to take part in the study.

Permission was given to access staff at all organisational levels and therefore issues of access were not a major problem. The only difficulty encountered

was in liaising with one of the external service suppliers who, for their own commercial interests, were reluctant to engage with the thesis study. After intervention by an HR manager, a working relationship was established but discussions did not have the same ease that was experienced with others.

The only stipulation placed on the research was to ensure that the Organisation was not identifiable in the final report in order to maintain confidentiality. Researchers within Private Sector organisations have the additional responsibility of a duty of care to protect commercial (Kvale, 1996, pp 11-120) as well as individual and organisational confidentiality. As a result, within the case-study setting, any information regarding training strategies which might be of commercial value to competitors may be restricted or not available for use outside the Organisation.

The view taken by the Organisation in the study, was that how they plan, organise, and deliver training, was not an issue of public concern. As a Training Manager commented, if approached, he, and his colleagues "*would be happy to discuss general issues but not specific policy*". The Organisation had systems for the assessment and evaluation of training needs but the resulting data was for internal consumption, such as for future planning, and not for the public domain. Being privately funded and resourced, there are not the same requirements for accountability to external agencies. As explained by a HR Manager, there was an assumption, in line with other areas of the Organisation's business, that competition and market forces will ensure that quality assurance issues are addressed. For example, if a contractual trainer was deemed not to be providing the expected level of service, they can be replaced.

The Organisation had a strong commitment towards training. This was strongly emphasised by participants and others throughout the research period. Training was a core element of the Organisation's business survival strategy, (Legge, 1996), and as such reflects its belief in human capital theory. Within the theory continuous organisational development is linked to continuous staff development (Guest, 1987, 1989; Legge, 2005)). That the

Organisation's business strategy was grounded within human capital theory helped to explain why it had a strong committed to training (Beardwell and Claydon, 2007). This also accounted for their frequent commissioning of 'training needs analyses' and the importance that it placed on the findings of such research.

Within the Organisation, responsibility for training was devolved to a number of Departments, reflecting their business strategy and structure for development of the business. These divided into Human Resources, Virtual University, and individual employees. The Human Resources section had the overall responsibility for ensuring an adequate level of competent staff to successfully run and develop the Organisation. Part of their function was future planning to identify the number of staff and the skills required to grow the Organisation. This was achieved by the two-prong approach of either recruiting staff with the required skills or developing the skills of existing staff. The main role of HR, with regards to training, was in the monitoring of existing skills and the commissioning of new training. The training might be commissioned from out-source suppliers or in-house using their own Virtual University section. In addition, HR had responsibilities for ensuring that the Organisation was compliant with Health and Safety legislation concerning staff welfare.

The 'Virtual University' was the Organisation's main training section. Its name reflected both its use of multi-media in its training delivery and the range and depth of training undertaken. The Virtual University had the primary responsibility for the development and running of training programmes. In concert with other sectors, they developed the training strategy to ensure that the required level of skills and expertise was available in order that the Organisation might achieve its strategic objectives.

The final area of responsibility for training rested with staff. Employees need to be competent and have the skills to do their job effectively and efficiently. Constant changes, due to new external and internal demands, require staff to avail themselves for training in order to update skills. It was the joint

responsibility of line-managers and staff to ensure that suitable training was identified and accessed. The Organisation has systems and procedures, such as six monthly staff reviews and annual staff-appraisals, to aid this process.

The Organisation has a comprehensive portfolio of training programmes that cover both specialist skills, such as overseas exchange rates, and generic skills, such as using IT systems. Although access to certain training was open to all staff, for example, induction programmes, access to most courses tended to be either job or task related. For example, training was given to volunteer First-Aid practitioners, Health and Safety Representatives, and Fire Marshals. All employees had the opportunity to apply for such jobs (for which they receive an honorarium). If a person's job was directly related to a health and safety issue which, for example, involved dealing with dangerous substances as defined by the 1974 Health and Safety Act, then training was given prior to taking up those duties. Employees were encouraged to apply for training. The identification of appropriate courses and the review of those undertaken were standard items for discussion in staff appraisals. With the use of multi-media training materials, many courses had open access, for example, language courses. Family members as well as employees were able to access such courses. Other courses were restricted to staff working within a specific area. Acceptance on such courses, for example, customer service, was dependent upon a number of factors: the relevance of the training to a person's current job, the support of their line-manager who verified the relevance, and the method of delivery of the training material.

The range of training courses offered, the way training was managed, and the criteria for access are common to many large organisations (Grubb and Ryan, 1999). Collectively, they demonstrated the Organisation's commitment to training. Although, as with many other organisations, this commitment was not as straightforward as the HR managers suggested. In operationalising policies, there were contradictions when applying them. For example, there was recognition of the importance of developing the Organisation via staff training, a strategy consistent with human capital theory (Mathews *et al*,

2004). However, there were restrictions concerning access to particular training programmes which were not always consistently applied.

A similar situation could be detected in the evaluation of training programmes. In general, the emphasis was on quantitative indicators, for example, number of days attended, number of delegates who received training. A review of the Organisation's incident data base illustrated how evaluated qualitative data tended to be presented in quantitative terms. For example, at the end of a training session delegates were expected to write comments regarding their satisfaction with the programme. In summarising these comments evaluators extracted data from individual personal comments and presented them as group percentages.

Summary

As identified, the focus of the study was the exploration of workplace training, specifically, post-critical incident support training. The thesis argues that such training differs from other training programmes offered by the Organisation in that, it is neither job related nor aids business development. In developing the thesis, the chapter outlined the rationale for the study, the aims of the thesis and identified the research questions. In addition, it suggested the potential contribution the study can make to professional practice.

Although Bowling, (1997) suggested that the traditional convention of research reporting: *introduction, literature review, research methods, results, discussion of results, and conclusion* does not suit the case-study, and nevertheless, it was the one followed in the thesis. There was flexibility regarding the boundaries of the various sections due to the report style being influenced by Stake's (1995) recommendation that the researcher should:

- i. Give a chronological description of the research process
- ii. Describe their approach to understanding and exploring the case
- iii. Describe the main aspects of the case-study.

These recommendations have been incorporated within the thesis. For

example, within the analysis of results, Chapter 4, vignettes of participants' experiences have been given. In addition the literature, though reviewed in Chapter two, is referred to throughout the different sections. In describing the case-study and the investigation, the reporting style differs from the usual convention. For example, the inclusion of personal biography, and the occasional use of the first person.

Accordingly:

- Chapter 2 considers the literature and identifies the theoretical basis of the thesis including concepts of workplace training/educational, human resources, human capital, critical incidents and issues relating to stress. The literature helped to formulate the questions used at interview.
- Chapter 3 considers methodological issues, including the rationale for using a case-study approach, ethical issues and the approach taken to data analysis.
- Chapter 4, Results, identifies the evidence of participants' understanding of a critical incident and perceived changes within the workplace. This helps to support the argument that change was occurring within training. In addition, it evidences participants' understanding of the training requirements that might support post-critical incident recovery.
- Using the evidence from the results and the research literature, the discussion in Chapter 5 explores issues relating to the 'purpose' for offering training. In doing so, it champions the adoption of a humanistic educational approach to post-critical incident training.
- Chapter 6, Conclusion, in addition to summarising the thesis, this chapter returns to issues of professional relevance, the limitations of the research methods, and post-critical incident training programmes.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Introduction

The aims of this chapter are to explain the rationale for the range of literature chosen and the contribution it makes to the study as a whole. The objective is to set the foundations for the argument by identifying key concepts and issues relating to the phenomenon (critical incident), the educational aspects of post-critical incident training, and the Organisational context framework for offering training. The review consisted of library (books and journals) and internet searches. The latter was an important source of information relating to public organisations, such as the FSA as well as identifying research papers. The review was 'not all of a piece' but continued throughout the research process. This was because at various times additional information was required, for example, understanding different forms of business capital.

Apart from obtaining a clearer understanding of the main concepts, such as 'critical incident', the two issues that quickly emerged from a review of the literature were, first, the multidisciplinary nature of post-critical incident training. Secondly, the dynamic nature of the key areas, such as, human resources, workplace learning, and approaches to learning, as they continually evolve and interacted with each other.

Multidisciplinary Literature Review

An initial search of the published literature found that there were no studies that directly addressed generic post-critical support training for staff within the workplace. In seeking to identify appropriate literature there was a difficulty in that there was no single body of literature but rather, the associated literatures were dispersed within a number of disciplines. Therefore, in developing a theoretical framework for the argument, the thesis draws upon literature from a diversity of fields and not solely that of the education literature pertaining to vocational education and training and workplace learning. Other literatures included, health, social workers/counsellors, disaster management, stress and

trauma, human resources/development and models of capital.

As emerged from the review, although there is a sharing of knowledge between these separate disciplines, each has its own distinct values and differences of purpose. For example, issues relating to the management and commissioning of training tend to be covered by human resources related literature. From a human resource perspective the primary role of training is to enhance business survival. Educational factors *per se* are not a prime training consideration of the business setting, (Armstrong, 1999).

In searching the literature six areas of interest were identified:

- i. Workplace learning, training and education
- ii. Defining Critical Incident
- iii. The Effects of a Trauma-inducing Critical Incident
- iv. Learning Approaches to Post-Critical Support Training
- v. Human resource management,
- vi. Human Capital Theory and Social Capital Theory

Collectively the associated literature of these six areas helped to identify issues relating to post-critical incident workplace training and contributed to the theory base of the thesis. Given the word limitation of the paper and the range of areas to be considered, it is not intended to give an exhaustive review of any particular approach or model.

Workplace Training: Locating the Study within an Educational Field

Unwin *et al* (2005), Fenwick (2002) evidence the increased interest in workplace learning as the subject of research for a range of academic disciplines in addition to that of educationalists, for example, economics, sociology, and organisational theorists. Similarly, Marchington and Wilkinson (2005), Legge (2005), evidence the central position workplace learning holds within Human Resource Development. Although other disciplines greatly contribute to the workplace learning literature, educational aspects are not

always paramount (Marsick and Watkins, 1999). Therefore, the concern here is to consider workplace learning and, in particular, workplace training, in relation to education. The objective being to establish workplace training (as the focus of the thesis) as being educational, which itself has been contested (Finegold *et al*, 1990).

In advancing the argument this section has two aims; the first is to consider the workplace as a site of learning and to contextualise workplace training within the overall learning opportunities afforded by the workplace. The second aim is to explore the relationship between training, workplace learning and education. In doing so, it considers the concept of training and how it is used within the thesis. In addition, it provides a rationale as to why the term 'training' is used rather than the more encompassing, term 'learning', which is the term increasingly used in Human Development (Storey, 2007) and workplace research literature (Evans and Rainbird, 2002).

The Workplace as a Site of Learning

There is a large body of research evidencing the workplace as an important site of education for both formal and informal learning (Harris, Bone and Simons, 1998; Evans, Hodgkinson, and Unwin, 2002; van der Klink and Streumer, 2006). A situation summarised by Unwin *et al* (2005) as:

'It is now accepted that workplaces are sites for learning, indeed, so much so, that the nature of that learning and the role of teaching in the learning process are the subjects of substantial enquiry across a range of disciplinary fields.'

(Unwin, 2005, www.clms.le.ac.uk/research/learningaswork.html. accessed Nov 2007)

In reviewing the literature a number of factors need to be borne in mind. First, the consistency of purpose for an organisation is offering employees learning opportunities. Ultimately, the main objective in providing learning opportunities is not to provide education for the employer but for the organisation to survive (Armstrong, 1999) by meeting its '*prime goal...to produce goods and services*' (Fuller and Unwin, 2004, p.126), (Rainbird, 2000).

The second factor relates to the dynamic nature of the workplace as a site of

constant change and development (Barnett, 1999). Such changes are themselves in response to changes in the concept of work and how organisations adapt in order to best obtain competitive advantage. Changes in the nature of work have, both directly and indirectly, influenced workplace learning, as organisations strive to identify and promote various forms of learning in order to maximise learning opportunities for employees (Raggatt, & Unwin, 1991; Garrick, 1999; Billett, 2004a, 2004b). For example, the increased globalisation of the workplace, and new technologies have brought about different work practices in addition to creating demands for new training for new skills (Aston, and Green, 1996). In turn, such changes, have led to '*significant challenges to traditional models of learning and the role of the educators*' (Fenwick, 2002) which effects training.

The third factor concerns the power that employees and employers each separately have that may be used to foster or hinder learning opportunities. On the one hand employers are instrumental in creating learning opportunities (Rainbird, 2000), whilst on the other hand employees may, for various reasons, choose not to avail themselves of such opportunities (Streumer, 2006). Fuller *et al* (2004) consider power brokerage to be a central issue '*to understanding the opportunities and constraints on learning*' (*ibid*, p. 2) and links this to the way organisational structures and decision making may facilitate learning. In this way the workplace as a provider of learning opportunities impacts at both an employee and organisational level regarding the quality of learning opportunities that it affords (Fuller and Unwin, 2004).

The final factor to be considered is the way 'workplace learning' is itself defined. Streumer and Kho (2006) suggest that difficulty of precise definition stems from the array of perspectives and theories that have aimed to describe the relationship between the workplace and learning. In their review of the different aspects of the concept (based on the work of Garvan, Morley, Gunnigle and McGuire, 2002) they summarise the five main points:

1. The context – in the narrow sense – within which learning takes shape is important
2. Learning occurs at different levels (individual and organisational; often

the level of groups or teams is also differentiated)

3. The degree of self-direction plays a role
4. Learning occurs in different forms (incidental, informal formal)
5. The emphasis is increasingly being placed on the development of the ability to learn

(Streumer and Kho, 2006, p.13)

Rather than offer a specific definition, the thesis draws upon all of these identified aspects as each of these points illustrate different facets of workplace learning. Collectively they help to clarify the confusion of what Garrick (1998) referred to as the '*many stories*' of workplace learning. In doing so, these five aspects of workplace learning complement the main learning opportunities that the workplace potentially offers, as identified by Candy and Matthews (1998). They may be summarised as:

- The workplace as a site for formally accredited learning
- The workplace as a site for complex technical interactions and problem-solving
- The workplace as a site for sharing and creating knowledge
- The workplace as part of the knowledge society
- The workplace as an organic entity, capable of learning and adaptation in its own right.

(Candy and Matthews, 1998, cited in Matthews and Candy, 1999, p. 53)

The advantage of this model is that, in addition to allowing for the individual being the focus of learning, it recognises the situational aspect of learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991) including the collective, and the social aspect of workplace learning (Stevenson, 2000). This situational aspect of workplace learning has also been the concern of a number of sociologists (see Casey, 1995) and anthropologists (see Lave and Wenger, 1991). Indeed, Casey's (1995) concept of work was as:

'...an educational site in which pedagogical and learning practices have always taken place.'

(Casey, 1995, p.74)

Stemming from this view of the workplace, Lave and Wenger (1991) argued that on entering employment, employees become members of a changing community of practice, which they described as:

'a set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practices' (Lave & Wager, 1991, p. 98).

In addition, it *'takes learning to be an aspect of participation in socially situated practices'* (Lave, 1995, p. 2).

Accordingly, it identifies the capability of the workplace itself to learn and develop (Legge, 2005).

Candy and Matthews', (1998) model has an additional advantage in that it enables the informal learning opportunities that the workplace offers to be recognised in addition to the formal learning opportunities (Hager, 1998; Billett, 2004a, 2004b). (See Appendix 2 for Hager's comparative summary of the difference between informal and formal workplace learning). Although it might be argued that despite the distinction made between formal and informal learning in practice such divisions may not be so readily discernible.

For example, a new employee may undergo a formal learning staff induction programme that is explicit regarding its content and procedures, which give clear information as to what the employer expects of them and, in turn, what they may expect from their employer. Within their day-to-day work information, gleaned from other colleagues (informal learning) might be of greater importance in helping them to understand their new role and the work environment. As such, whilst the boundaries for formal learning are more clearly defined (or appears to be so), factors affecting informal learning are less clearly defined (Hager, 1998). In part this is because workplace learning may be wrongly labelled as other workplace activities: *'culture; work organisation; career structure; strategic needs; technology; change'*. (Hager, 1998, p.531) and therefore may go unnoticed.

This might support Lave and Wenger's (*ibid*) position on situational learning who suggested that the distinctions between formal and informal learning as

too narrow a focus to adequately account for employees learning. They considered that it is the total experience of engaging with a particular community that gives rise to the learning. However Rainbird et al (2004, p. 40) whilst acknowledging the contribution Lave and Wenger (1991) make in relation to identifying the role that situational learning makes to knowledge production are critical of the lack of consideration they give to the '*power relationships and [consider] the structural constraints on learning is weak*' (ibid, p. 40). In particular they comment upon Lave and Wenger (1991) lack of recognition as to the significance of formal workplace learning adding:

'Formal education and training provides workers with resources and positional goods which are of value individually and collectively.'
(Rainbird et al, 2004, p.41).

In part, what this helps evidence, as Mathew and Candy's (1998) demonstrated, is the inter-connectiveness of workplace learning opportunity. Formal training, the first aspect with the model, might therefore be considered as a sub-set from the wider group of workplace learning opportunities. Such learning views knowledge as an '*artefact to be conveyed to learner by experts*' (Mathews and Candy, 1999, p. 53). It is this learning opportunity, training, and its relationship to education and learning, that is next considered.

Training as Learning and Education

Although the literature evidences the workplace as being a site of education, within the vocational education and training (VET) literature, the relationship between training, learning, and education has not been so readily accepted (Finegold et al, 1990). (See also Moodie, 2002 on defining VET). However, despite its long history (Marsick and Watkins, 1999) within academic communities, training has not held the same status as other forms of learning (Gonczi, 1997; Hager, 2004a, b).

Part of the difficulty is that not all workplace learning, as argued by Jarvis (2004) may be considered educational. Similarly, whilst the '*purposes*' and '*process*' of training may overlap, not all training is educational (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005, p.307) nor may be considered to be learning (Legge, 1995).

For example, Winch (1995), in arguing the case for recognising the interdependence of education and training, highlighted the poor image that training historically had in comparison with education. Negative adjectives such as 'mindless' and 'mechanical' are used to describe training as opposed to positive comments such as 'intellectually challenging' and 'mind developing' that are applied to education. Similarly, Cunningham (cited in Bee and Bee, 2003), described the difference between 'training' and 'learning' within needs analyses as the 'one-dimensional' focus of training as opposed to learning.

This division between workplace training and learning has resonance with Evans and Rainbird (2002). They also made a distinction between learning and training, considering training to be:

'too narrowly focused on the immediate task and restricted to business needs, but learning, which addresses the needs of a variety of stakeholders: employees, potential employee's, employers and governments.'

(Evans and Rainbird, 2002, p. 8).

The position taken by researchers regarding the supremacy of the term 'learning' over 'training' seems to be in contrast to what appears to be happening in the workplace itself. Poell and van der Krogt note:

'Not only does training receive more attention in organisations than workplace learning does, the systematic integration of work and learning programs is not more than a remote perspective to many companies.' (2006, p.72)

Whilst recognising the usefulness of research (such as that of Evans and Rainbird, quoted above) in bringing out the complexity of the learning process as far as the range of needs it seeks to satisfy, such views appears to deny the potential for training to be learning or educational. In this way it might be considered as reflecting wider prejudice that separate learning and training and help to maintain the division between general education, which is characterised by abstract thought and vocational education, which is centred on concrete action (Gonczi, 1997).

Such views are supported by Hager (2004b) and, although referring to informal learning, seem to find expression in Beckett comment that:

'Workplace learning confronts much of what has been traditionally held as educative about experience, mainly because, to many professional educators, such learning seems hopelessly capricious, informal and localised. In short, theorisations of workplace learning, such as is attempted here, confront the defenders of the high ground – those who adduce to formal education's Great Traditions, the implicit right to treat workplaces as insignificant sites of 'worthwhile' learning.'

(Beckett, 2001, p. 141)

The prejudice that seems to separate training from education is present in Longworth's statement that:

'Learning is not synonymous with education and training. It includes the products of education and training, the processes of both formal and informal learning and the various types of learning – skill, knowledge, understanding, values, experience, attitudes.'

(Kent-Region Learning's strategy, cited in Longworth, 1999: p.19)

Although Longworth acknowledges the wider aspects of learning, there seems to be a lack of recognition of the inter-relationship between the learning, education and training. There appears to be little space for considering 'learning' as a precursor of 'education'. It could be argued that the process of acquiring or absorbing skills, knowledge, etc., is learning and that education, as the Latin root of the word suggests, is the *drawing out*, or making external, of this learning. Learning is of little value until it is made '*conscious*' and transformed into education (Falk, 2006).

More positively, Bee and Bee (2003) suggested that the difference between training and learning may be considered to be one of process. In particular, they noted that training '*implies some formal process intervention*' as opposed to learning which can be:

- '*a formal intervention of some sort – e.g. a traditional 'classroom' course, an e-learning module, etc.*
- '*a semi-informal intervention – e.g., coaching, a secondment, working on a project, etc.*
- '*informal – ranging from an informal coaching session by a line-manager, or help from a colleague, through to the learning that takes place as an almost continuous process as we experience the world and learn from it*'.

In keeping with Bee and Bee's analysis, the thesis considers training as a way of learning and accepts that learning and training should not be considered as separate entities, but regarded as part of the wider field of education. As noted by Collins (1991):

'Though the distinction between training and education seems readily apparent, a commonly held view that the two are antithetical is fallacious and unhelpful. Both education and training are concerned with the systematic development of individuals and communities. Their purposes and processes overlap. Aspects of training are associated with all educational endeavours which presuppose deliberate mediation on the part of an educator, and training contains an educational dimension'.
(Collins, 1991, p. 87).

Accordingly, as used in the thesis, the term 'training' describes the planned process for delivering the formal learning opportunity to meet identified learning need, (Armstrong, 1999). The decision to use the term 'training', rather than workplace learning, relates partly to the process and partly because of its common usage. As Storey (2007, p. 117) noted, training is the term used by government agencies, such as the Department of Education and Employment and the Office of National Statistics when collecting data concerning workplace learning. In addition, the term training is familiar and understood by employees:

'To them [managers and workers] learning often equals course-based training'. (Poell and van der Krogt, 2006, p.72).

Lastly, as with many other employers, 'training' was the term favoured by the Organisation when expressing the form of learning support they sought for their employees. Therefore, because of the common usage, the type of process that training encompasses, and the literature review, 'training' is the term used in the thesis. In so doing it assumed that training relates to learning, and further that it may be considered as a sub-group of workplace learning. This is in keeping with Bramley:

'Training is a 'process which is planned to facilitate learning so that people can become more effective in carrying out aspects of their

work'. (Bramley, 2003, p.4)

In relation to post-critical incident support training whilst the learning may not be specifically job orientated, nevertheless, in the assessment of potential long-term survival needs it may enable staff to be more effective. This in turn helps to ensure the survival of the Organisation.

Later in the chapter when considering human resources the developing of training in keeping with the development of the workplace is considered. Here, the clarifying of the use of the term training and identifying it from other workplace learning opportunities serves to promote the educational focus of the thesis. As Grubb and Ryan noted:

'A great many efforts march under the banner of vocational education and training (VET). The differences are not always clear.'

(Grubb & Ryan, 1999, p.8).

For Grubb and Ryan, such differences include the failure to take into account the wider aspects of training in comparison to other forms of workplace learning. For example, the lack of clarity when describing different types of training, a failure to take into account the interests of institutions providing training, and the lack of attention to the purpose of training. For Grubb and Ryan (1999), these differences lead to wider discrepancies regarding the type of training planned, the way it is delivered and what aspects of the programme need to be evaluated. This lack of consideration hamper efforts to make educational claims for training for the lack of precision does not allow for an informative evaluation. However, despite best efforts to evaluate training, for example, by define precisely learning outcomes for training, there can be no certainty as to how successful certain training might be, for as van der Klink and Streumer noted:

'..it is likely that poor training design only increases the barriers to learn in the workplace effectively. On the other hand a well-designed training does not automatically imply that the training goals will be achieved.' (van der Klink and Streumer, 2006, p. 388).

Successful achievement, however that may be defined, may be independent of the training, as other unplanned factors might impact on the training and cause an unintentional outcome (van der Klink and Streumer, 2006).

Conclusion

To conclude this section, the learning that is the focus of the thesis is formal learning that is, training that has a clearly defined purpose, structure, and designated outcomes. Although the research papers cited have taken very different approaches, they serve to illustrate the findings of the wider review of workplace research literature, that the workplace be considered as a site of education where learning occurs.

Having argued for the use of the term 'training' within the thesis, it was also brought to mind the important difficulties of ascribing any learning to a specific designated learning opportunity (van der Klink and Streumer, 2006). From reviewing the literature, what makes post-critical incident training a potential learning experience, that can be regarded as educational, are the formal, clearly defined processes and learning outcomes that formal training programmes require. In this way post-critical training may act as:

'...the system that aims to develop people's intellectual capability, conceptual and social understanding and work performance through the learning process.'

(Bramley, 2003, p.4)

In so doing, post-critical support training offers employees the potential for self-development that, if called upon to use, holds the possibility *'to become more effective in carrying out aspects of their work'* (Bramley, 2003, p.4)

Defining a Critical Incident

The phenomenon explored in the case-study was the concept of critical incident. In reviewing the literature, the term seems to apply to three distinct areas:

- An associated methodology and research method
- A problem solving technique
- A traumatising event.

It should be noted that within these three areas there was overlap regarding the way the concept was perceived and used.

Critical Incident as a Methodology and Research Method

As an associated methodology and research method (*Critical incident technique* or CIT), stems from the work of John C. Flanagan (1954). Utilising a positivist approach, Flanagan sought to analyse and quantify human behaviours as applied to job analysis and the professional roles. He described a critical incident as:

'an incident in which the purpose or intent of the act is clear to the observer and the consequences are definite.' (Flanagan, 1954, p. 327)

Flanagan (1954) claimed that CIT offered a method of scientific, neutral observation, and categorisation of all human behaviours.

Within the CIT protocol Flanagan (1954) identified five procedural steps the purpose of which was:

- i. To decide upon the general aim of the study. This sets out the rationale for study. In addition, it also allows for evaluation and planning, both of which Flanagan considered essential.
- ii. To make concrete the general aims by planning how factual incidents are to be collected and developing the criteria as to what interactions are to be observed and recorded.
- iii. To collect the data. According to Flanagan, data should be objective to validate behaviour.
- iv. To analyse the data and summarise it in a manner that enables it to be used for practical purposes.
- v. To interpret and report the requirements of the activity being studied.

Flanagan stressed the importance of objectivity to validate findings which he defines as: *'the tendency for a number of independent observers to make the same report'* (Flanagan, 1954, p. 335).

There has been criticism of CIT as proposed by Flanagan (*ibid*), with regards to his assumptions concerning protocol and procedures (Wilde, 1992) and achieving objectivity, (Norman *et al*, 1992). Collectively, their findings indicated that, when prescribing meaning to an experience, participants used a combination of experiences rather than any single, specific event. Norman *et al* (*ibid*) also criticised the inflexibility of the technique as it did not fully encapsulate and explain human activity.

Of benefit to the thesis, are Norman *et al* (1992) findings which identified three assumptions commonly associated with CIT. First; the term critical incident refers to a clearly demarcated incident. Secondly, the incident is only valid if a detailed description of events can be obtained. Thirdly, it is the critical incident itself that constitutes the basic unit of analysis and not associated details. All three assumptions are relevant to the other usage of the concept and helped to define the boundaries of the phenomenon explored in the thesis.

Critical Incident as a Problem Solving Technique

The second notion of the term 'critical incident' relates to its usage as a problem solving technique. In this way it has been used educationally, as part of continual professional practice, in a number of professions such as, health, education and social work, (Cunningham, 2008). Such usage reflects its research origins as evidence in research studies into professional practice (McGill and Beaty, 2001). Critical incident analysis has also been used as an aid to managerial decision making (Bee and Bee, 2002) and in training to develop best practice (Ryan *et al* 1995). Analysis of a critical incident creates the potential to learn and develop from an event and subsequent reactions. As a management/training instrument, Bee and Bee (2002) did not give a concise definition of critical incident but instead gave a number of examples. They comment that:

'By using the word critical in this way we are saying that these incidents are of significant importance to the business and therefore relate most often to the organisational and occupational/group levels for the identification of learning needs.' (Bee and Bee, 2002, p. 35)

This definition has similarities with that used by the Organisation:

'A Business Continuity Incident is anything that has caused (or has the potential to cause) an interruption to a business activity' (Cited from the 2002, Human Resources Policy Document on the management of A Business Continuity Incident, Private source).

Through discussions with the HR liaison manager, it was learnt that the Organisation desired to emphasise the positive aspect of business survival and its ability to manage an incident. For this reason the Organisation abandoned the term 'critical' (as previously used in its documentation) in favour of 'business continuity'. Any suggestion that an event could not be managed was not to be encouraged. This was in keeping with Thompson's (2001) concept of crisis within business management that is considered later in this chapter.

Critical Incident as Trauma-inducing

The third usage of the terms arises from a review of the literature on disaster and emergency planning. It links to other usage of the concept, particularly in relation to being '*... produced by the way we look at a situation*', (Tripp, 1993, p.8).

Accordingly, as noted by Cunningham:

The first ...construct in the analysis of what renders critical an event in professional life is its propensity to create a disturbance in our professional equilibrium. (Cunningham, 2008)

Although referring to a professional life, Cunningham's (2008) suggestion of a critical incident causing disturbance to a person's sense of equilibrium can be extended to other aspects of a person's life (Golan, 1978). At its extreme a critical incident can induce trauma in those involved (Trimble, 1985; Sattler, 2003). The potential effects of such incidents, as experienced by survivors might be summarised as:

- Sudden and unexpected
- Disruptive to a sense of control
- Disruptive to the beliefs, values, and basic assumptions about the

world in which a person lives, the people in it, and the work they do

- Perceived as a life-damaging threat
- Involving emotional or physical loss

(Source, Trimble, 1985)

From a disaster management and medical perspectives, a search of the Internet produced the following definitions of critical incident:

'Any situation beyond the realm of a person's usual experience that overwhelms his or her sense of vulnerability and or lack of control over the situation.' (Roger Soloman),

'Any Situation faced by emergency service personnel that causes them to experience unusually strong emotional reactions which have the potential to interfere with their ability to function either at the scene or later.' (Jeff Mitchell, Ph.D.)

'A life experience or series of experiences that so seriously upsets the balance of the individual that it creates changes in the person's emotional, cognitive or behavioral functioning.' (Daniel A. Goldfarb, Ph.D. & Gary S. Aumiller, Ph.D.)

'A critical incident can be a physical incident or psychological trauma that has a severe immediate impact and likely long term effects on the individuals involved. These may include:

Incidents that involve staff/student, staff/staff, or other person/staff/student.

People-made disasters/emergencies

Natural disasters/emergencies'

(Calwell primary school)

(Solomon in Heavy Blue Badge web site:

<http://www.heavybadgecom/cisd.htm> accessed Dec 2007).

Soloman preferred definition was: *'a normal reaction to an abnormal event'*, (*ibid*). For the thesis, the advantage of this definition is that it helps to focus on the fact that how ever extreme a person's reactions might be to a critical incident, they need to be considered as 'normal' and can be objectively study within a training programme i.e. without the stigma of 'madness' being associated with them. In addition, it avoids focus on negative effects of critical incidents. The emphasis on the negative aspects of critical incident is, in part, a result of post-incident support being increasingly 'medicalised' (as noted by Cunningham, 2008). Therefore it leaves scope for a critical incident being a positive experience. For example, a potential longer term effect on some

survivors can be a more positive self-image of coping (Trimble, 1985).

Summary

As identified from the literature, all three usages of the concept of critical incident are drawn upon to explain the phenomenon being explored in the case-study. Borrowing from Norman *et al* (1992) and as used in the study, the term critical incident refers to a clearly demarcated incident that allows for a detailed description of events to be obtained. In addition, the critical incident itself is the phenomenon being explored and not associated details. As a basis for analysis, a critical incident also allows for reflection by those who have experience the event (Cunningham, 2008) and holds the potential of learning from the event, (Bee and Bee, 2002). Finally, the traumatic inducing aspect of the concept offers the potential to understand some of the experiences of those that have been involved in a critical incident. As such, the study used the critical incidents experienced by participants taking part in the study, to capture:

‘....both what is unique and what is common about an event.’
(Davis and Reid, 1988, p 306)

In so doing, it provides a phenomenon to be explored that has the potential to identify issues relevant to post-critical support training.

Stress, crisis and trauma

In the last section, the potential traumatic effects of a critical incident were noted. It is useful to consider this in greater detail as not all those that have been involved in a critical incident will experience the same degree of distress that gives rise to trauma. In order, to understand how trauma might have affected participants within the study, and why there was variation within individual resilience and coping (Ungar, 2003), it is important to consider concepts of *stress*, *crisis* and *trauma*. In particular, to move beyond the colloquial (mis)uses of such terms and to consider how they relate and differ.

A way to understand the relationship between *stress*, *crisis* and *trauma* is to

regard them as a declension that moves away from a person's normal 'coping self' to a position where they feel less in control of their feelings and behaviour (Figure 1: see *below*).

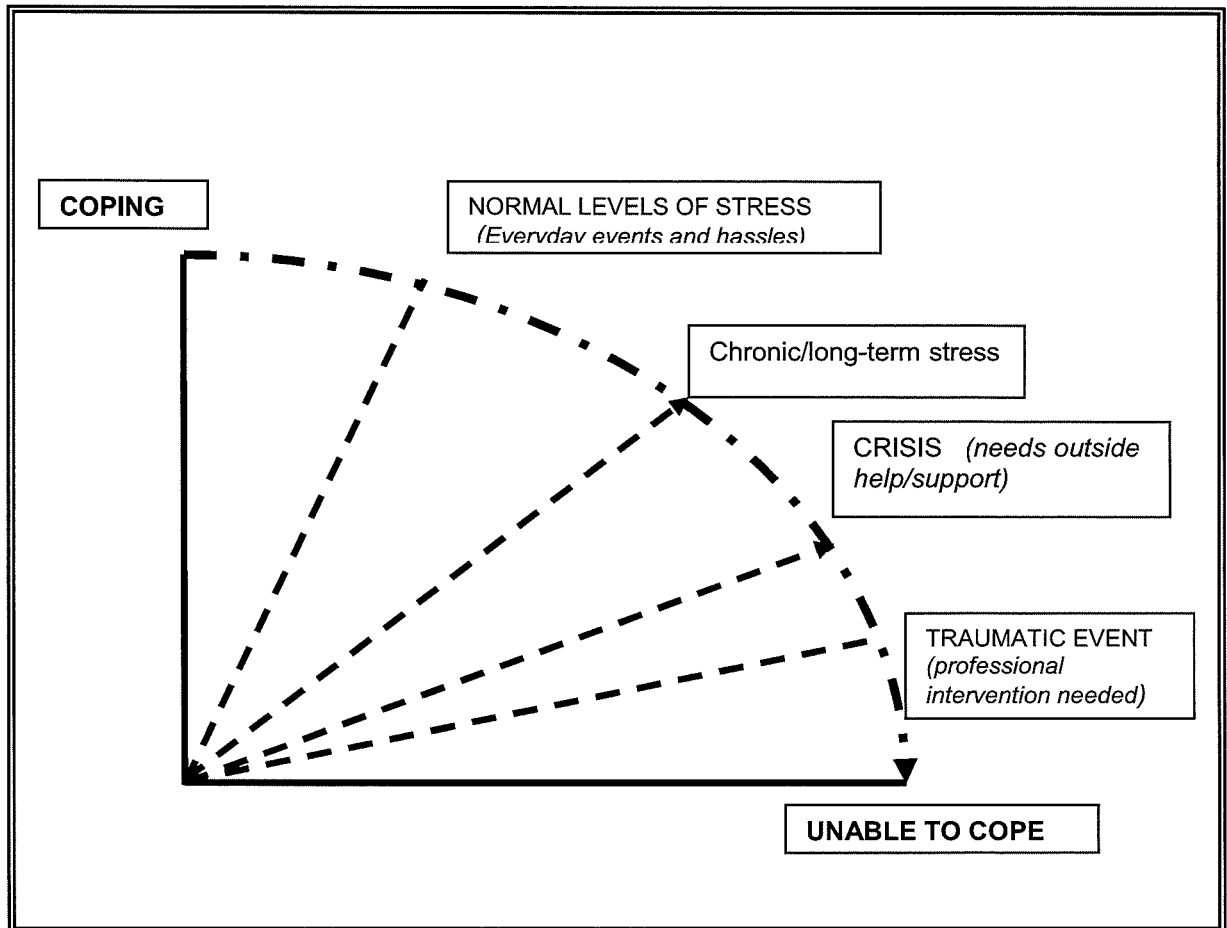


Figure 1. Declension of increased stress: moving from coping to trauma and being unable to cope (Novak)

Figure 1 helps to illustrate the importance of personal self-perception (Tripp, 1993) when considering whether a person is feeling stressed or has been traumatised by an event. The more a person perceives and experiences themselves as being distressed by a situation, the greater the feeling of loss of control and inability to cope (McDermont, 1988). As a person moves from healthy levels of stress into trauma, their increased anxiety results in an increased sense of hopelessness, and an inability to deal with it (Parry, 1990).

These concepts are not linear stages. A crisis can be the result of a sudden event, or can be the result of a build-up of stress over a long time which can then be triggered by a relatively minor incident (Parry, 1990; Kennedy and Charles, 2001).

Defining Stress

The term 'Stress' is used to describe a range of experiences from being worried or tense, (more accurately 'anxious'), to identifying the source of the event or person triggering the experience. Within the literature, although there is a great deal of overlap, a general distinction can be made between psychological and sociological approaches to stress. For example, within a sociology, social interactionists, such as Goffman, focus on self-identity and perceive stress as stemming from conflicting self-images (Goffman, 1959). From a psycho-social perspective, stress is a state that occurs when people are faced with events which they perceive as endangering their physical or psychological well-being, or when they are unsure of their ability to deal with these events (Parry, 1990).

The events that are labelled 'stress' are not in themselves harmful (Parry, 1990). Many have positive aspects, for example having a busy period at work can be motivating to a person. Certain situations can be a mixture of both 'pleasure' and 'pain'; as, for example, in an interview a candidate might not like the pressure of the selection process but might enjoy the opportunity to demonstrate their ability. For some people stress may help them to perform better, while for others it may inhibit them (McDerment, 1988).

How successfully a person might cope with stress, that is, the cognitive and behavioural efforts required to deal with the internal and external demands of the stressful situation (Folkman *et al*, 1986), varies between individuals. In addition, a person's ability to predict the occurrence of a stressful event and to exert some control over how long it might occur can reduce the severity of stress (Ogden, 1996). Social support provided by other people also helps to mitigate the effects of the stress (Kennedy and Charles, 2001). This means

that, while it might be possible to make generalisations about events likely to cause stress, and the effects of stress overload, it is not possible to predict with any accuracy how an individual will react (Sattler, 2003; Ungar, 2003). Each person has a different level of coping, which itself is subject to change depending on circumstances and personal beliefs (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Therefore, in dealing with stress, there is a need to understand how the individual appraises a situation in terms of their own particular motives and resources for coping with it (Parry, 1990).

The way a person reacts to a critical incident is similar to the way in which they negotiate the normal stress of day-to-day life (McDerment, 1988). Daily living is stress-inducing, such as, coping with unreliable public transport, pressures of work, dealing with personal and social relationships. There is a constant bombardment of stimuli from the environment, all of which demand a response (Parry, 1990). Based upon their own personal experiences people develop ways, both good and bad, to deal with the stimuli. Most stimuli can be filtered-out and ignored, whilst others demand immediate attention, for example, being alert to a police siren as opposed to the tone of an ice-cream van (Atkinson *et al*, 1990). How adept a person is at coping with such life events might be regarded as a measure of how well they cope with stress.

Atkinson *et al* (1990) identified the major sources of stress as

- *Traumatic events*
- *Life events*
- *Difficulties in everyday life*

(Note: Aspects of trauma are considered separately later in the section)

Life events

Holmes and Rahe (1967), devised a list of life events that ranked from most stressful to least stressful, for example, death, divorce and redundancy. Although criticised for being too general, (Masuda & Holmes, 1978), such lists can aid people in understanding what has contributed to their current state of stress. The lists also indicated the effects of cumulative stress, as people with high scores from the previous year, on reassessment, were associated with

increased physical and psychological ill-health (Holmes and Rahe, 1967).

Everyday Life

Despite the ranking of major life events, research has found that everyday hassles can be a better indicator of people's physical and mental health than the major events in their lives (Masuda & Holmes, 1978). These are the day-to-day events everyone experiences, such as late appointments or disagreements with partners or friends.

The precarious experience of daily living makes it important for people to try to gain some control over their environment (Parry, 1990). Being able to recognise potentially threatening or dangerous situations allows evasive action to be taken in order to avoid it. The fight or flight theory of stress, (McDerment, 1988), suggested that, when faced with a threatening situation primeval man had two options: either to confront the danger or to move away. A person's reactions can be regarded as a combination of psychological (recognition of the potential threat) and physiological (preparation for action). This means that, in responding to a stressful situation, the degree or type of response made depends on the meaning that the situation has for the individual, (Folkman *et al*, 1986).

As societies advanced, technological development and more complex social relationships created new obligations which restricted people from being able to respond in this way, but physiologically the body is still only equipped to make fight or flight responses. Many of the physiological experiences associated with stress are reactions that have been triggered by the body (self-defence mechanisms) in order to defend itself ((McDerment, 1988; Parry, 1990). Unfortunately, the conventions of contemporary living do not always allow us to follow this through. Stress can occur when the body, having prepared for a sudden burst of energy, does not use it. This is compounded by the fact that a person may also have to prepare themselves emotionally as well as physically.

It is the combination of cognitive and emotional factors that govern physiological reactions to stressful events. The controlling factors seem to be the relative amount of 'distress' (anxiety, fear) and 'effort' (active attempts to cope with the situation) that are generated by the event (Frankenhaeuser, 1983).

- In an event that produces minimum distress, the individual copes effectively and does not feel threatened.
- In an event involving distress without effort the individual can be left feeling helpless to act or cope.

Most stressful situations trigger both systems as they involve both distress and effort. As a result, chronic stress can result in both physical and emotional health problems (Parry, 1990). In relation to a critical incident, increased stress may lead to a decrease in a person's performance by impairing their ability to organise their thinking and focus on the task (Trimble, 1985). The more complex the task, the greater can be the deterioration.

Stress also affects a person's behaviour. When faced with the uncertainty of how to respond, they might resort to behaviour patterns that have worked for them in the past. In their desire to cope, such behaviours can become more extreme, as, for example, aggressive behaviour becoming more aggressive. Behaviour can become rigid, especially if initial actions fail, which might increase anxiety. The emotional impact of stress can result in a person's responses being erratic; within moments their feelings can swing rapidly from one extreme state to another (Herman, 1992). Therefore, a person's reactions might not be an accurate indication of their emotional state.

The main response to a stressful or threatening situation is *anxiety*, that is, the unpleasant emotions that are at times experienced, such as heightened tension, fear, etc. Some models of anxiety used to explain personal emotional reactions stem from the psycho-analytical work of Melanie Klein (1988a, 1988b), who considered anxiety to be fundamental to the human condition. 'Anxiety' is viewed as a defence mechanism arising from a subjective

appraisal that there is a perceived physical or psychological threat to 'self' (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000). It can range from mild to extreme. In everyday situations it is usually possible to identify and attribute the source of stress to account for why a person is feeling the way they are. Within day-to-day encounters 'objective anxiety' helps in the recognition of perceived threats and in so doing enables a person to cope with them. At times a person might over-react to certain events such as, for example, being unable to speak during a presentation (McDerment, 1988). At such times, 'neurotic anxiety' diminishes their ability to do the task. However, some occasions, as with critical incidents, are perceived as deeply distressing. Such occasions are inevitably accompanied by profound anxiety. Four separate interactive systems; physiological, emotional, cognitive, and behavioural, are responsible for producing the anxiety response. The resulting response can produce defence mechanisms, for example, repression, rationalisation, projection, or denial (Garland, 1998). The aspect of such defence mechanisms is that they allow for a person in a distressed state to avoid the pain of anxiety by distorting the reality of the situation (Garland, 1998; Kennedy and Charles, 2001). This might not necessarily be a negative reaction as it might allow the person to cope with the immediate effects of the stress and give them time to understand what is happening to them.

Crisis

The concept of crisis, as used in this study, refers to the psychological effects. Within management studies there is a different approach. Thompson (2001) comments upon the multi-variant uses of the concept of crisis and how it *'includes a mixture of technical and managerial elements'* (Thompson, 2001, p. 830). Although the components of this 'mixture' are not defined, it nevertheless served to distinguish a managerial perception of crisis from the psycho-social/medical model. In particular, as discussed later in the paper, it illustrates a managerial belief that all situations are manageable. For Thompson (2001) a crisis can be either *'thinkable'*, and therefore contingency planning is possible or *'unthinkable'* where such planning is not possible. He also used the terms *'more unthinkable'* which suggested that, even with the

'unthinkable', the possibility of planning/management intervention is a consideration. Within the model a distinction is made between 'crisis management', a planned, risk-management approach, and 'disaster management' where there is unquantified risk and no proper procedures for managing the incident. However, the model does not allow for the state of emotional inertia that a crisis might produce, which is a major element of Golan's model (1978).

Both Thompson's (2001) and Golan's (1978) models of crisis contain aspects of the original Greek word *krisis*, meaning 'decision' (Parry, 1990). Some of this original meaning can be found in Parry's definition:

'The word crisis really means a point of time for deciding something; the turning point, the decisive moment. . . We use the word when we are faced with an urgent stressful situation which feels overwhelming. Crises happen to individuals, families, organizations and nations.'
(Parry, p.1, 1990)

The same sense of decision making and potential for personal change is present in Golan's work (1978). Within her model a person is deemed to be striving towards homeostasis and equilibrium in their emotional wellbeing.

The difference between Thompson's (2001) managerial approach and Golan's (1978) therapeutic approach is an individual's perception of their ability to cope. Within a managerial approach, the details or effects of the incident tend to be paramount in formulating a response, whilst, within a therapeutic model, the response centres on the person or organisation in crisis. The crisis is not the incident *per se*, but when the person or organisation can no longer cope, and can no longer control their situation. For example, when confronted with a problem a person goes through a series of behaviours based upon previous experiences to find ways of reaching a solution. They continue until they have exhausted their repertoire of responses and they then realise that they have reached a point where they will not be able to find a solution. It is on such occasions that a person moves

from being stressed, into crisis. Therefore, a person's understanding of the world, and the things they do to control it, are no longer working (McDermert, 1988; Parry, 1990,). The resulting loss of emotional equilibrium causes both physical and emotional anguish. At such times, outside help is needed not just to alleviate stress, although hopefully this will also occur, but to help find ways of dealing with the problem that has precipitated the crisis.

The literature would therefore suggest that a pre-requisite of offering post-critical incident support is the ability to distinguish between *what is stress* and *what is a crisis*. Although sharing many features, the two are very different; the main difference being a person's ability to cope. Someone might be highly stressed but, if they are coping, this is not a crisis (Golan, 1978). In addition, within Golan's therapeutic model (1978) not all the aspects of crisis are negative. It can be a time for development and finding new ways to resolve problems.

Trauma

As identified in the literature, (Trimble, 1985; Myers, 1994) one of the damaging effects of a critical incident is the potential to produce trauma in those involved. This might be an immediate reaction or may occur long after the event and is now a recognised medical condition called *Post Traumatic Stress Syndrome*, (PTS) (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). The original meaning of the Greek word for *trauma* described the wounding of the skin, a breaking through of the body's tissue (Garland, 1998). This is an analogy of how the mind experiences a traumatic event, as a wounding. When a major critical event occurs, the effect of suddenly having to absorb so many stimuli overwhelms the mind's ability to filter information. In doing so, it obliterates a person's defences against anxiety. This leaves the mind exposed to all the terrors of annihilation. Garland (1998) described this sense of annihilation as:

'anything that is felt to be essential to life, including life itself.'

(Garland, 1998, p.16)

In his model of anxiety, Freud (1926, in Strachey, 1977) made a distinction between anxiety that the mind experiences as an *actual* danger situation

(automatic anxiety) and anxiety produced by a *perceived* threatening situation (signal anxiety). Signal anxiety warns of an impending danger and enables the body to make preparations. In day-to-day life this dual system works well, enabling a person to filter their experiences and act accordingly. During a critical incident, the result of such a severe attack on the mind is to damage the dual system so that signal anxiety can no longer be trusted. Within situations that are perceived as being similar to the traumatic incident, events are no longer viewed as *potentially* threatening but are experienced as *actual* dangerous situations, that is, a person is plunged into experiencing automatic anxiety.

For survivors of trauma, it is the lack of signal anxiety that can make them vulnerable to the stress of everyday living. As Garland comments:

'Certain smells, sounds, sights, situations, even words connected with the traumatic events, all produce states of immense anxiety, and the mental state known as the flashback. There is no capacity and no place for belief in 'signals' or 'warnings': this is it.'

(Garland, 1998, p.17)

The literature on resilience and disaster management has illustrated the difficulty of predicting a person's response during a critical incident (Gilgun, 1996b). A person's way of being, their previous experience and social relations, all have a bearing on how the trauma will affect them (*NCPTSD- National Centre for Post Traumatic Stress Disorder Web Page accessed Feb 2007*). For some people, the trauma will affect them longer than it will for others (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). Appendix 3, gives a summary of the main reaction to trauma considered to be within the norm for individuals experiencing a critical incident.

Some people, who have been exposed to a traumatic event will experience such a severe reaction that it produces a debilitating condition known as Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). As noted by the National Centre for Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (NCPTSD) -

'Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is a mental disorder resulting from exposure to an extreme, traumatic stressor. PTSD has a number of unique defining features. These criteria include:

- *Exposure to a traumatic stressor*
- *Re-experiencing symptoms*
- *Avoidance and numbing symptoms*
- *Symptoms of increased arousal*
- *Duration of at least one month'*

(Source: National Centre for Post Traumatic Stress Disorder, Web
Page accessed Feb 2007)

In the aftermath of a traumatic event, sufferers have particular needs and require varying degrees of specialist help (Trimble, 1985; Harrison, 1987; Herman, 1992). Unfortunately, lack of recognition of this by sufferers and those around them can prevent them from accessing such help.

Summary

The associated literatures relating to stress, trauma, and critical incident recovery illustrates the unpredictability of the phenomena as regards their occurrence and effects (Myers, 1994). It also identifies how the pernicious effects of trauma can persist for many years and, in extreme cases, result in survivors suffering post-traumatic stress syndrome (NCPTSD, 2007).

A constant theme throughout the associated literature was the importance placed on understanding the physical and emotional effects of the phenomena. In particular, personal understanding, i.e., self-awareness, was regarded as a key element for aiding recovery in the aftermath of a critical incident (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). This has important implications for training, as it suggests that the learning approach taken by post-critical incident training may need to allow for personal exploration and the development of self-awareness (Dyden and Thorne, 1991; Sattler, 2003). This is considered in the next section.

Learning Approaches to Post-critical Incident Training

As can be seen in the previous section, an individual's response to a critical incident may be damaging to both their emotional and physical health (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). Related literature, counselling/social work (Kennedy and Charles, 2001; Garland, 1998; Inskipp, 1996), disaster

management (Newman, 1993), and medical/post-traumatic stress literature (Trimble; 1985, Myers, 1994; Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005) all identify the need to develop self-awareness for both survivors of critical incidents and for those who may potentially be involved. However, much contemporary workplace training is based on an instrumentalist/rational framework (Critten, 1993) and the assumptions that objective thought may reflect a problem-solving bias in its design and delivery (Collins, 1991). Therefore, as with other workplace training (Marchington, and Wilkinson, 2005; Armstrong, 1999), in offering post-critical incident training the appropriateness of the learning approach needs to be considered in order to maximise the learning opportunities for delegates.

Drawing upon the social sciences Merriam and Caffarella (1991) offer a framework for considering learning theories from an educational perspective. They identified four classifications: behavioural, cognitive, humanistic and social. Their classification has some similarity to classifications used in other disciplines, counselling (Inksipp, 1996), Human Resources (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005). The advantage of this classification is that it enables differences, including philosophical differences concerning the human condition, to be considered. Although, one disadvantage is that theories can present as discrete entities when in reality there is '*overlap between many of the ideas presented*' (Jarvis, 2004, p. 84). Space does not allow for a full examination of these competing theories (see Jarvis, 2004). Each has a contribution to training as regards the particular learning opportunities it seeks to offer and the way in which they can be delivered (Jarvis, 2004).

As considered earlier, drawing upon a sociological perspective, work itself might be considered as a learning experience (Casey, 1995). Sociological and anthropological approaches to learning have allowed for researchers, such as, Lave (1996); Lave and Wenger (1991); Engestrom *et al* (1996), to consider the nature of the workplace, and the social relationships within it, that collectively creates the opportunities for learning to occur. In this way, in addition to that of formal learning/training opportunities, the contribution that informal/unplanned learning has made can be recognised (Hager, 1998). As

part of this, the unintentional consequences of training, both positive and negative, may be identified (Hager, 1998). Such issues have a particular relevance regarding theories of social capital and transfer of knowledge (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005), discussed later in the chapter.

The advantage of sociological and anthropological approaches is that they expand on psychologically based learning theories which Pillay (2006) regarded as dominating workplace learning. Pillay (2006) considered that psychological theories have

'difficulties in explaining learning process associated with complex tasks such as those involving intentions, influence of social context on behaviour and informal learning' (Pillay, 2006, p.81)

However, as with sociological, psychological learning theory is not homogenous. Within a psychological paradigm different schools have spawned different learning theories. For example, behaviourist psychologists, such as, Pavlov (1926) and Skinner, (1986) (see Jarvis, 2004 and <http://www.bf Skinner.org/home.html> for full list of Skinner's work), have attempted to produce a macro theory to describe all human behaviour. They considered that a person's behaviour/learning can be conditional to a particular type of response. The conditioned response is achieved via the use of a reward or punishment to reinforce certain behaviour, (Pavlov,1926; Skinner, 1968, cited in Jarvis, 2004). Accordingly, within a training situation that is based upon behaviourist learning theory, the role of the 'teacher' is crucial in shaping a person's behaviour (learning) by the use of praise or criticism. Therefore, for a behaviourist such as Skinner (1986, cited in Jarvis 2004):

'Teaching is simply the arrangement of contingencies of reinforcement'
(Skinner 1986, p.5, cited in Jarvis, 2004, p.70).

Jarvis (2004, p 86; citing Hilgard and Atkinson, 1979, p. 217), considered Skinner's theory of learning to be '*conceptually confusing* (ibid)' as it equates the product of learning with the process of learning.

For Thorndike (1928), his concept of 'connectiveness' suggested that a person would continue to act/believe in a certain manner until such time as that behaviour no longer holds and an alternative has to be found. In this way Thorndike's theory might be regarded as being learner centred as it is the development of alternative approaches based upon their own experience.

Behavioural theories have been used in conjunction with other approaches. With reference to training, particularly skills training, Robert Gagne identified a number of stages in the instructional process that drew upon both behavioural and cognitive theory. The initial eight identified in 1977 were later expanded to nine and consisted of:

- *Gaining attention*
- *Informing the learner of the objectives*
- *Stimulating recall of prerequisite learning*
- *Presenting the stimulus material*
- *Providing learning guidance*
- *Eliciting the performance*
- *Providing feedback about performance correctness*
- *Assessing the performance*
- *Enhancing retention and transfer*

(Gagne *et al.*, 1992, p.203)

For training to be successful the trainer needed to address all stages.

In addition to explaining the relation between the trainer and trainee, Gagne *et al* (1992) later developed a further eight-staged model of learning that addressed the various forms of learning: signal learning, stimulus-response learning; motor and verbal chaining multiple; discrimination; concept learning; rule learning; problem solving. Whilst the stimulus-response stage has links with behaviourist models, the model relate more to the cognitive models of learning such as Piaget's (1929) concept of stage development of learning. Within cognitive development models of learning, the emphasis is on understanding the stimulus-to-stimulus aspect of learning. As, for example, in

Gagne's *et al* model (1992), in the final stage, *problem solving*, learning is regarded as testing the rules learnt in the previous stage. In testing for previous solutions (learnt rules) against the new situation, other potential solutions arise. Once successfully identified, the new solutions can be assimilated into the person's learning repertoire. Used as a training technique to simulate learning, problem-solving as a training method can be very productive as it enables delegates to explore issues draw upon their own experiences and own their solutions (Armstrong, 1999, p.492).

Mindful of the overlap between theories (Smith, 1982; Brookfield, 1986), it might be argued that, at extremes, behavioural, cognitive and social models of learning tend to be too limited as a learning approach for post-critical support training. Schoenfeld (1999) posed the question:

'How do we begin to unravel the nature of the learning process, a relationship between an individual and the environment that results in the individual having new understandings and capacities? There are at present no good candidates for answers to this question. Moreover, a major reason for this state of affairs is the cognitive/social split'. (Schoenfeld 1999, p. 6 cited in Hager, 2004a, p. 10)

Without wishing to oversimplify such approaches, as a general comment, most of the learning theories identified do not seem to take the wider aspects of a person into consideration. For example, within a cognitive approach the process of sense-making and discovery is the focus; for behaviourist approaches it is the application of consequences. Similarly, whilst a behaviourist approach might be useful for skills training (Armstrong, 1999) and can '*...produce a technician with a bag of tools for his/her trade*', (Inskipp, 1996, p.5) understanding the effects of 'such tools', with regards to the potential for damage as well as for good, requires an understanding of one's self and of others. Such learning goes beyond the mechanical application of certain techniques and therefore would appear to be unsuitable as an approach to post-critical incident training (Collins, 1991). Within sociological approaches, it is the social relationships and phenomenological meaning of learning in the workplace that offers a focus for the understanding of learning. Whilst this may be useful for understanding a cultural response as to how people have coped, which may shape future responses, it does not negate

the need for the development of self-awareness which requires consideration of the individual learner (Rogers, 1969; Senge, 1990).

Therefore, in reviewing the literature regarding learning theories, it would appear that a humanist approach seems best to encapsulate the approach to learning that post-critical incident training requires. Humanistic learning theory is a broad church and draws upon aspects of other learning theories (see Aloni, 1999, for a resume of different approaches), particularly those relating to the use of prior experience (Knowles, 1980), experiential learning (Boud, 1988; Weil and McGill, 1989) and reflection (Kolb, 1984; Schon, 1983, 1987). Despite different emphases, humanistic-based learning theories have the shared goal of developing the 'whole' person. This is based on the belief that human beings have an ability to behave with 'intention moderated by moral values' (Kurtz, 2000). As such it reflects Freire's concept of *praxi* (Freire, 1972, p.96) i.e., the ability for action and to reflect on the action. As with all living organisms, human beings have an innate potential for growth but, in addition, are considered to be creative, autonomous and rational beings, (capacities not found in other species (Edwards, 1989) and therefore capable of processing and reflecting on their experiences (Freire, *ibid*). Accordingly, within humanistic education, there is a pedagogical commitment to enabling all individuals to reach their potential via personal growth (Rogers, 1969; DeCarvalho, 1991).

Gage and Berliner, (1991), identified five basic objectives of the humanistic view of education. These objectives might be regarded as pertaining to both post-critical support training and also to a 'soft' human resources approach (Thompson, 2001). Each of these objectives helps to maintain the student at the centre of the educational process and fosters personal growth. These are:

- i. To promote positive self-direction and independence (development of the regulatory system)
- ii. To develop the ability to take responsibility for what is learned (regulatory and affective systems)
- iii. To develop creativity (divergent thinking aspect of cognition)

- iv. To foster curiosity (exploratory behaviour, a function of imbalance in any of the systems)
- v. To foster an interest in the arts (primarily to develop the affective/emotional system).

(Adapted from Gage and Berliner, 1991),

Therefore, within a humanistic educational approach, the educator's main function is to facilitate the student to promote learning (including the use of empathy, congruence, and positive regard) as defined by Rogers (1969).

In placing the learner at the centre of the training, a humanistic learning approach offers advantages for both the employers and employees. For example, it is not age-specific but is regarded as continuing throughout a person's life (DeCarvalho, 1991) and therefore might be regarded as in keeping with human resources objectives for continual staff development. More importantly, as a holistic approach, it encompasses a person's physical, mental, and social learning. As such, it recognises the complexity of human emotions and the important part they play in a person's personal and social life (Izard, Kagan & Zajonc, 1984). All of which are important consideration in developing self-awareness.

A humanistic learning approach might also be considered as emancipatory. Although referring more to oppressive social structure, Freire's concept of reflecting on experience in order to bring it to consciousness and hence 'reality' has application to post-critical incident training. Freire's statement: *'...I know that I will be liberated only if I try to transform the oppressing structure in which I find myself'*, (Freire, 1976, p.225), may find resonance with those victims of a traumatic critical incident who are left feeling oppressed by their experience. As identified earlier in the literatures, trauma sufferers have a need to understand their reactions in relation to their physical and emotional well being.

The final point regarding the appropriateness of a humanistic educational approach to post-critical support training relates to the training process itself.

Post-critical incident support training involves exploring issues related to trauma, loss and bereavement in relation to self. Therefore, the training experience may itself deeply affect delegates and trigger emotional responses (Dyden and Thorne, 1991). As noted, the focus of such training is on understanding such issues through development of 'self-awareness' within the individual and addresses the range of possible reactions they or their colleagues might have following a critical incident. As such, the training links personal identity with the learning process and reflects Colley *et al* (2003) belief that '*learning is a process of becoming*', (Colley *et al*, 2003, p. 474). This would seem to be at the centre of a humanistic learning approach, (Rogers, 1969). In addition, it is also in keeping with the Organisation's concept of itself as a 'learning organisation' (Senge, 1990) which is part of the discussion in the next section.

Human Resources

As in most large organisations, within the case-study setting, responsibility for training was a designated Human Resources (HR) function (Storey, 1995). Therefore, in exploring post-critical support training consideration needs to be given to this sector of an organisation that, as 'gate-keepers' of training, control the necessary structure and resources.

In reviewing the literature pertaining to HR, two issues emerged. First, the metamorphous nature of the concept of Human Resources as it evolves in response to changes within the nature of work, society, the workplace organisation, and the workforce, (Tyson, 1995; Storey, 1995,). Secondly, the role HR has in maintaining the balance between the ever-changing needs of the Organisation and those of the employees (Legge, 2005). In exploring these two inter-related issues this section considers a number of areas. The first relates to defining the key concepts associated with human resources. The second area considers the evolution of HR and the way it has adapted to meet workplace changes and newly emerging theories regarding the motivation of the workforce. The third area is linked to the development and training role of HR and its influence in developing the workplace as a learning

organisation.

Defining Human Resources

An *a priori* requirement in exploring post-critical support training is to understand the role of Human Resources. There is a danger that the concept of *Human Resources* may be regarded as a homogeneous entity (Sisson, 1995) or a unitary monolith (Storey, 1995), when more accurately it might be regarded as a collection of ideas centred on a number of approaches for achieving its core function (Jason Hughes, 2007, private communication). This view of HR best reflects its history, or 'evolution' from its emergence from motivation theory at the beginning of the twentieth century.

An initial difficulty in discussing HR is that the terms Human Resource Management, Human Resources, Human Resource Development and Training, and Personnel can be used synonymously (Thompson, 2001). Accordingly, as used in the paper, Human Resource Management (HRM) is used to describe the academic study of the theories and practice governing the management of an organisation's workforce. The term, *Human Resources*, is used to describe the activities of HR managers in their day-to-day practical application of HRM. This has been defined by Storey (1995) as:

'A distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce using an array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques'.

(Storey, 1995, p. 5)

The term *Personnel* tends to refer to issues of welfare, for example, wage paying, recruitment, etc. The administrative functions associated with a Personnel section are still required (Mahoney and Deckop, 1986). As it has evolved, the role of HR has absorbed many of the welfare, industrial relations, and recruitment and selection functions traditionally associated with the former role of the Personnel Manager (Beardwell and Clayton, 2007). This is not to say that the role of personnel management is defunct. Indeed,

Thompson comments on how HR might be considered:

‘..an approach to personnel management rather than an alternative to it’;
(ibid p. xix).

Against this, Legge (2005) in her review of literature concluded that the difference tends to be one of emphasis, with HRM being more concerned with the central strategic management task than personnel management, (Legge, 2005, p. 114).

Evolution of HR

The tension between personnel and human resources may be considered as reflecting the evolution of HR. Historically, it is possible to trace HR’s antecedents to the early part of the twentieth century and its development from motivational theories relating to Human Resource Management (Beadwell and Clayton, 2007). The term ‘Human Resource Management’ was first attributed to Miles (1965). In an article for the Harvard Review, Miles outlined an approach to business organisation that aimed to develop *‘an environment in which the total resources of (the organization) can be utilized’* (Miles, 1965, p 150). This he suggested may be achieved by harnessing the hitherto under used resources of employees (*ibid*). There was an assumption that particular approaches to management would facilitate the development of the workforce. The industrial unrest of the 1980 and 1990s (Storey, 1995) helped to stimulate ideas about organisations becoming more effective and efficient by better utilization of organisational resources (*ibid*).

As part of this increased awareness of the need for better management of the workforce or human resources, within the HR literature two diametrically opposite theories can be discerned, which have been described as the ‘hard’ and the ‘soft’ approach. Two books, published in 1987, used similar concepts to describe differing HRM approaches. Guest (1987) used the terms ‘soft-hard’ and ‘loose-tight’ whilst Storey (1987), used ‘soft-hard’ and ‘weak-strong’. Although concepts of ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ approaches have been a hallmark of British HMR, both were based upon the American HRM literature. In particular, the ‘soft’ or Harvard model was advanced by Beer *et al.* (1984) and the ‘hard’ or Michigan model by Fombrun *et al* (1984). In turn, their work

might be traced to early staff motivation studies, specifically, the work of McGregor (1960). McGregor himself used the terms 'soft' and 'hard' to describe differing styles of management, but not specifically human resources management. His theory identified archetypal managerial positions (referred to as the X and Y theory) each of which represented opposing views as to how best to promote staff motivation. Each reflected a contrasting view of human nature which was instrumental in shaping managerial approaches. The 'X theory,' associated with 'hard' HR, required managers to have firm controls as employees were perceived as not being motivated to work unless directed to do so. In addition to providing direction via organisational processes, as for example, appraisals, rewards, in the form of money, security, and fringe benefits are used to motivate employees to achieve organisational goals.

Within Theory Y, usually associated with a 'soft' HR approach, it was assumed by managers that workers were basically achievement-oriented, creative, and self-directed. According to McGregor:

'man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed'. (McGregor, 1960, p. 326).

The assumption that employees can be self-motivating means that, rather than relying upon coercion and other control systems, managers primarily need to create a workplace environment which will enable the development of staff potential. Such an environment can be encouraged by managers listening to employees concerns, sharing ideas, and involving employees (Torrington and Hall, 1998).

Equally, similar findings, suggesting that the employees' commitment to the workplace was a strong factor in developing organisational performance have been noted by a number of researchers (Dunham and Smith, 1979; Guest, 1987; Beaumont 1992 and Legge, 1995). Linking with McGregor's notion of self-motivation, such commitment can be fostered by managers demonstrating trust in their staff, for example by enabling workers to have greater control over their work and thus a greater sense of personal autonomy (Guest, 1987; Hendry and Pettigrew 1990; Woodruffe, 2006, p. 29). Unlike the

directive control of a 'hard' model, within the 'soft' model, control is regarded as arising through the workers' commitment (Purcell, 1993).

In attempting to account for the diversity of approaches, Tyson (1995) suggested that the work of HR being people-centred created the dynamic responsible for the metamorphosis of human resources. Changes in Human Resources may be regarded as the product of the dilemmas of day-to-day life. These arise as societal, organisational, and individual needs alter, conflict, and adjust (Tyson, 1995). This constant state of flux means there can be no permanent fixed state.

Development and Training

As identified in the literature, one of the functions of HRM is to create the conditions for developing an organisation's human capital (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005). From a psycho-social perspective, consideration of the working environment, regarding the dynamics played out between individuals, groups and the organisation in different work spaces, is an important element of successful workplace learning (Fischer, 1997). As the HR section responsible for this, Human Resource Development (HRD) '*aims to provide a coherent and comprehensive framework*' (Armstrong, 1999, p.476) that will enable this to happen at both organisational and individual level (Stewart and McGoldrick, 1996, p.1).

HR Development tends to consist of two inter-related functions learning, the acquisition or increase of knowledge, and/or skills and development; an improved state of functioning (Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell, 1997). Accordingly, training might be regarded as the vehicle that offers the planned, structured, opportunities for learning to occur (Armstrong, 1999). The identification of employee learning and development needs and the design of strategies to meet them is part of the HRD function, (Collins, 2007). The literature also illustrated how models of training to meet employees' learning and development needs have been subject to change. For example, Mathews *et al* (2004) described the cyclical nature between the identification of

problems and the development of solutions to solve them which then give rise to further problems. This process, which she refers to as the 'time-bounded nature of a leading idea' suggests that the strategies to overcome such problems are reflected in the approaches taken to training. This may be illustrated by using a diagram adapted from Megginson and Pedler (1992, cited in Mathews, Megginson and Surtees, 2004, p.37) in which they trace the key developments in training and how they are linked to HRD practice.

Within the diagram (figure 2) the historic development is regarded as identifying problems (P) followed by the emergence of a solution (S). Eventually, each solution gives rise to a new set of problems.

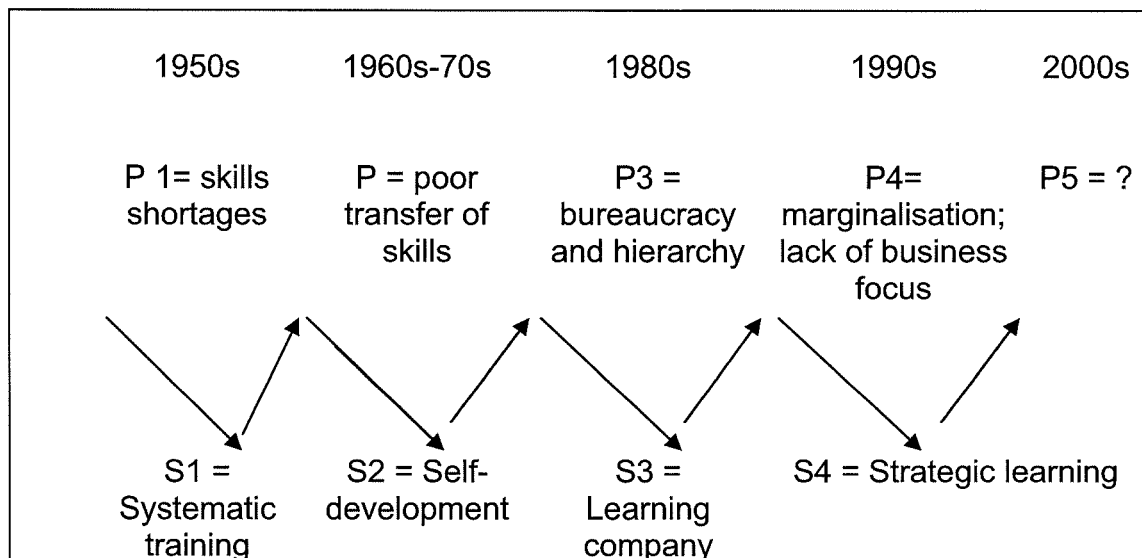


Figure: 2 An extended problem-solution map of training and development (Megginson and Pedler, 1992, cited in Mathews, Megginson and Surtees, 2004, p.37)

The time-based nature of the diagram helps to illustrate how a growing awareness of HR Development in developing solutions to problems has led to increased techniques for training (Marsick and Watkins, 1999). For example, group exercise, instruction systems design (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1994) the use of experiential learning – andragogy (Knowles, 1980) self-directed learning (Candy 1991), increase diagnostic ability and increase action skills (see Armstrong, 1999, for a resume of these and other techniques). The dynamic between identifying problems and the approach to workplace

learning and training, in turn evidenced the changing nature of work, as noted by Barnett (1999):

'Technologies, economic arrangements, systems, institutions, roles, patterns of work and patterns of consumption are changing with increasing rapidity.'
(Barnett, 1999, p.31)

All these factors act to change the nature of work '*..with "knowledge" being regarded increasingly as the primary resource*' (Boud and Garrick, 1999, p.3).

Brewster, Harris and Sparrow's study for the CIPD (2002; cited in Beardwell and Clayton, 2007, p.651) reported that 45 percent of organisations surveyed considered that knowledge management was the main focus of their international strategy. The focus on '*the creation and application of knowledge*', (Pillay, 2006, p. 80) may be considered as part of the dynamic of change in the nature of work which has helped to '*transform the nature of the workplaces into learning organisations - (LO)*', (Pillay, 2006. p. 80). Such changes have been influenced, not only by the type of work an employee does, but also to their social relations, values, and the structure of the organisation (Harrison, 1997). Keep and Rainbird, noted that the development of the notion of a learning organisation helped '*in the conceptualisation of learning, skills and knowledge within an organisational setting.*' (Keep and Rainbird, 1999, p.175). In this way training and related HR issues can be embedded within the overall organisational strategy and, in addition, can help to foster the organisation's culture. Keep and Rainbird suggested that:

'The central question for an LO is how to foster moves and new forms of organisational structure (such as project teams and quality improvement groups)' (ibid)

The sense of the dynamic of the changing nature of the workplace finds expression in Senge's (1990) definition of a LO as: '*an organization that is continually expanding in its capacity to create its future*' (Senge, 1990, p. 14). Wick and Lean (1995) identified some of the main features of a learning organisation, which they suggest that an organisation needs to adopt if they wish to be considered as a LO. Wick and Lean (1995) advanced that an LO should:

- be a leader with a clearly defined vision
- be a rapid sharer of information

- be inventive
- have a detailed, measurable action plan
- have the ability to implement the action plan.

All these features may be discerned within the Organisation of the case-study setting. Although, it should be noted that, as with other organisations, within the literature the ability for an organisation to be fully considered as a learning organisation has been questioned (Legge, 2005; Pillay, 2006). However, consideration of the concept of an LO serves to evidence how Human Resources itself has changed as it attempts to resolve new issues caused by changing circumstances (Storey, 1995; Legge, 2005).

Summary

The review of the literature has illustrated the dynamic nature of HR as it adapts to the changing demands of work (Barnett, 1999). The dynamic of change brings into play a cyclical process whereby the phenomenon of change in work results in demands for new skills and knowledge, which in turn gives rise to other new forms of work with a resulting demand for a new set of skills, etc., (Meggison and Pedler, 1992, cited in Mathews, Megginson and Surtees, 2004). Therefore, as demonstrated in the literature, employees' needs cannot be seen *'in isolation from the learning needs of the organisation'*, (Thorpe, 2006, p.198).

One of the new demands that have arisen in the workplace has been the recognition of knowledge as a commodity or additional form of capital, (Senge, 1990). In attempting to harness this demand for knowledge, organisations are adapting to become learning organisations which, it is suggested, will give them the best structure of maximise business opportunities.

Many of the features could be discerned in the HR department and the Organisation as a whole, for example, the Organisation's description of itself as a learning organisation. HR also played a key role in developing the Organisation's business continuity strategy, as evidenced by HR's task to commission a training needs analysis. This, as noted by Marchington and

Wilkinson (2005, p26), 'serve to demonstrate how HR worked within the overall strategy of the Organisation, which itself is subject to social, national and international, pressures' (ibid), which in this instance was the Financial Services Authority. In addition, HR, in its development and training role, also strives to develop the capital assets of the Organisation; in particular, human capital and social capital as discussed in the next section.

Human Capital and Social Capital

Within a capitalist economy, the main aim of a commercial organisation is to continue to grow and survive (Thompson, 2001). Its success is measured in terms of its profitability. An organisation's survival is dependent upon the maximum utilisation of its capital. In seeking to increase profitability, organisations have sought to identify new forms of capital and investment opportunities, for example, social capital and intellectual capital, (Rikowski, 2001).

Castleton et al, (2006) commented that:

'Careful consideration of the human and social capital that are involved in workplace learning is fundamental to understanding the contexts in which workplace learning occurs' (Castleton, 2006, p. 1)

Human capital theory provides a rationale for organisations to invest in training (Harris *et al.* 1998). Whilst other models of capital investment, such as social capital, have started to influence private enterprise business strategy, these have also tended to be within a human resource paradigm identifying new forms of capital and investment opportunities.

Since the 1960s, education has been an increasingly important area of investment. The rationale for this can be traced to the work of Jacob Mincer and his article *Investment in Human Capital and Personal Income Distribution* (1958). His theory proposed that, based within a freely competitive market, human behaviour is deemed to be rooted in individual economic self-interest. Because the existence of a perfect competitive market is assumed, i.e., all

participants have equal access, therefore, within the workings of this model, other behaviours are regarded as distortions and therefore not relevant, (Fitzsimons & Peters, 1994). The issue for both individuals and organisations is how they may best gain a competitive advantage.

The economic rationale for pursuing this was advanced by Gary Becker in his seminal work *Human Capital; A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis, with special Reference to Education* (1964.) He outlined his ideas as to the way an individual's skills, knowledge and experiences can be perceived as being exploitable and therefore capable of being regarded as an alternative form of capital. This human capital, as with other business capital, offers a potential source of investment with a corresponding expected rate of return. Within the human capital theory, education and training may be regarded as being primary methods of investment, although there are others, for example, health care.

In relation to training, Billett and Cooper (1997) identified a range of investment opportunities:

- purchase skilled labour from the marketplace and invest in informal on-job training;
- employ apprentices or trainees and make a contribution in terms of wages and support for off-job learning and the provision of on-job training;
- provide specialist training to develop workforce skills by sending employees to training programs provided externally to the enterprise or internally by a consultant; and/or
- provide in-house training via the use of in-house Human Resource experts and trainers.

For Becker (1964), the investment decision for organisations is whether to invest in 'general' or 'specific skills' or training. In this way, human capital theory can help organisations to clarify decisions that need to be taken in relation to training. He argued that the potential rewards for an employee investing in *general skills*, is to make themselves more employable, that is, they are investing in skills required by most employers. For employers, if they were to invest in such training, they are potentially covering the training costs

of their competitors who might 'poach' staff once trained. Specific skills training tends to be valued mainly by specialist organisations, and therefore do not face the same threat from competitors. Therefore, within Becker's model (1964), as specific skills acquisition is regarded as primarily advantaging the employer is considered that they should bear the training costs, for they will be the main beneficiary of the returns on the investment.

Becker's theory (1964) has been criticised on a number of accounts, in particular, his assumptions regarding 'specific' and 'general' training. Stevens (1996) disagrees with the concept of dividing training into 'specific' and 'general', arguing that most training was only beneficial to a limited number of employees. She points to the difficulty in identifying training that would be beneficial to all employees, and similarly, in identifying training that would only be of use to one specific employer. In addition, Burdett and Smith, (1996) have questioned the concept of labour within a free market economy (a pre-condition of the model). They identified the difficulties in the relationships between concepts of the ideal free market and increased skills, increased production and wages costs. For example, Acemoglu notes, under-investment might arise if *'workers cannot borrow in order to carry out their desired investment,'* (Acemoglu, 1996, p. 51). Similarly, the inability of organisations to raise collateral against human capital in comparison with other forms of tangible capital can again act as a disincentive to invest in training (Booth and Snower, 1996). Such factors can affect the Human Capital model as they distort the concept of a perfect competitive market, which the theory assumed.

A negative aspect of Human Capital Theory is that a person might be considered as a commodity, a set of commercially viable skills and knowledge, that diminishes the wider aspects of a person's life and social identity. Whilst the human capital approach to organised labour might be regarded no differently from the traditional selling of labours for money, as, for example, within a Marxist perspective, arguably, it takes labour bargaining to the point where it might be considered as de-humanising. For unlike enforced labour, for example, the person is choosing to be and actively participating in

being regarded as a commodity. Equally, Human Capital Theory might be considered as championing the concept of life-long learning and enabling a person to have greater control over their working life. It potentially enables them to consider their full working life-span and have choices as to what they engage in. In addition, it offers the possibility of developing opportunities for life-choices outside of the workplace and into private life (Stevenson, 2000).

However, Castleton *et al*, (2006) identified that the concept of human capital may not be restricted to consideration of the individual but in relation to the collective aspect of work can be extended to include:

'the situated, social nature of work and of learning within which shared understandings are developed, institutionalised, built upon, evaluated and improved.' Castleton *et al*, (2006, p.ix)

It is the 'social' aspect of human capital that has given rise to the concept of 'social capital':

'Whereas economic capital is in people's bank accounts and human capital is inside their heads, social capital inheres in the structure of their relationships.'
(Portes, 1998, p.7)

Social capital may be considered as the cultural *norm* and *trust* of the workplace that enables a group to act in concert and with purpose or, as described by Woolcock (1998) *'encompasses the norms and networks facilitating collective action for mutual benefit'*. (Woolcock, 1998, p;. 155, cited in Falk 2006, p.34). Portes (1998) and Falk, (2006) have both suggested that for organisations to utilise the human capital potential of its employees there has to be a way of getting the knowledge that they have *'in their head'* (Portes, 1998, p.7) and transform it into social capital for the benefit of the wider group and organisation. Moreover, they considered that, in a given learning opportunity, it is only when social capital is used, in conjunction with human and physical capital, that *'learning occurs'* (Falk, 2006, p 50). In relation to the thesis, this would suggest that the knowledge based on the experience of surviving a critical incident that participants have, and the skills and knowledge that post-critical incident support might require, may be regarded as human capital. This human capital therefore needs transforming into social capital for it to be of benefit to the Organisation. Accordingly, this

view of social capital seems to link with one of the aims of the study, which was to identify such knowledge in order that it may be utilised in the workplace.

Conclusion

In reviewing a diversity of literature, it emerged that understanding a critical incident in relation to post-critical incident support training required a multi-disciplined approach. As a thesis concerned with education, the first area to be considered was workplace learning, training and education. The literature pertaining to workplace learning evidenced that the workplace was a site where learning and education occurs and that training might be regarded as formalising the process that enabled this to happen. In doing so, it established the educational basis for the thesis.

The second area considered was the phenomenon of critical incident; the focus of the case-study. The review suggested that, within the associated literatures, three usages of the term can be determined,. All three usages were considered to be useful to the development of the thesis argument. As an associated methodology it identified the importance of defining the boundaries of the phenomenon, in order to obtain a detailed description (Flanagan, 1954). Further, it advised that the critical incident itself constitutes the basic unit of analysis and not any associated details (Norman *et al*, 1992). As a problem-solving technique the literature identified how a critical incident may be used as a basis for self-reflection by those who have experienced the event (Cunningham, 2008). Thirdly, as a trauma-inducing event, the concept offers the potential to understand some of the experiences recounted by participants during interview. Participants' accounts would enable an understanding of the phenomenon and its effects to emerge. It was the traumatising aspect of a critical incident that was the central focus of the phenomenon to be explored in the case-study.

The third area of the literature review was drawn from the counselling, disaster management, social work, and health literatures. It considered the effects of a trauma-inducing critical incident and identified the physical and emotional effects that a person may suffer as a result of trauma. It also considered models of coping and how people's reactions differ from person to person, and from one event to another. The literature also identified the importance of self-awareness for aiding recovery from the traumatic effects of a critical incident.

The issue of developing self-awareness was also a consideration when identifying learning approaches to post-critical support training within the education and human resources literatures. In a brief review of some of the main learning-theory approaches, it concluded that humanistic learning theory would seem to be the most appropriate approach for post-critical incident training. Many of the aims of such an approach, as identified by Rogers (1969) and Gage and Berlin (1991), are congruent with the development of self-awareness that the training seeks to promote.

Human Resources literature was reviewed as within the study, it was Human Resource Managers who may be considered as the 'gate-keepers' of training. As training is a central feature of the thesis it was important to understand their role. They are responsible for the commissioning of training, ensuring delivery and evaluation. In addition they enable employees to access training. The review of the literature relating to Human Resources identified the complexity of the concept and its relation to other areas of people management. Distinction was made between Human Resources, Human Resource Management, Human Resource Development and Training, and Personnel (Thompson, 2001). What emerged from the review was the changing nature of all these different aspects of people management. In tracing the evolution of these changes two dominant approaches to Human Resources Management were discussed; the 'soft' and the 'hard' approaches (Storey, 1995). Both, it was noted, influence any decision regarding training policy.

The final area was Human Capital Theory and Social Capital Theory. Despite the criticisms over the last five decades, (Booth and Snower, , 1996) the importance of human capital theory within human resource management, and management in general, has placed it in an almost unassailable position (Back and Sisson, 2000). In reviewing the literature, the links between human and social capital were considered. In particular, the way social capital may be considered as the way the human capital held by an individual may be disseminated for the good of the group.

From a human capital perspective, the literature helped to explain why, during discussions with HR managers at the initial briefing meeting, they presented the Organisation, as regards training, as a potential solution to problem solving. In addition, the potential benefits from investing in human capital may offer an explanation as to why the Organisation want to make training available and why employees may or may not avail themselves of it. The literature suggested that post-support training lies outside the usual criteria considered for investment by a capitalist organisation. This raises the question as to why the Organisation would wish to do so.

To conclude, the literature review has identified the main issues that the research seeks to explore. In doing so, it has attempted to locate post-critical incident training within the wider field of workplace learning and training within a wider educational context. Collectively, these different areas helped to influence the design of the study by identifying aspects of the phenomenon to be explored, the critical incident, and the potential effects it may have had on participants. The next chapter considers the influence on the design of the study, and additionally, methodological points, in greater detail.

Chapter 3 Research: Methodology and Methods

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to consider the rationale for the research method chosen, a single case-study method (Yin, 2003), as regards the design, the criteria for selecting participants, the collection and the analysing of data. As part of this, it illustrates how the literature identified in the literature review was used to inform questions for interview. Three aspects of the research process, ethical issues, interviewing and recording are commented upon in order to demonstrate the researcher's approach to the research.

The objective of the chapter is to give the reader a clear account of the research method used, in order that they may assess the reliability and validity of the research, (Cohen and Manion, 1989; Gilbert, 1993; Silverman, 2000). Implicit within any claim for validity and reliability is the integrity of the research process. An important element of this integrity is the transparency of the research process as reflected in the reporting of the study (Silverman, 2000). It may be argued that, ultimately, it is the validity and reliability of the research which are the criteria used to decide whether or not any results or findings are acceptable (Berg, 2007).

Contemporary academia accepts that the criteria for qualitative and quantitative research might be considered as the two extremes of a continuum (Hammesley, 2003). However, although the study does draw upon quantitative data for factual details, the main body of data (gathered from the interviews) was qualitative. In taking a mainly qualitative approach, the study made a number of ontological and epistemological assumptions. Ontologically, it accepts that participants in the study are in a privileged position regarding their experiences and their own needs (Cohen and Manion, 1989). Epistemologically, in presenting results, it accepts that there is no one single, true, description but, instead, different accounts that can illuminate

different aspects of a phenomenon (Cohen and Manion,1989). Accordingly, it concludes that knowledge is not absolute.

Rationale for using a Case-study Methodology

The decision to use a single case-study method was based on a number of factors. The first relates to the kind of questions that the thesis posed. Yin (2003) suggested that:

'Defining the research questions is probably the most important step to be taken in a research study.'

(Yin , 2003, p.7).

He advised that a case-study approach is best suited to answering 'how' and 'why' questions (Yin, 2003). In this thesis the emphasis was on the exploration of such 'how and 'why' questions:

- i. How does the working environment differ from that prior to 9/11, and what, if any, are the nature of these differences?
- ii. How do participants' experiences of critical incidents inform their understanding of their learning/educational/ training needs?
- iii. Within an Organisational context: Why is training perceived as the solution to offering post-critical incident support?

In comparing different research strategies, Yin suggested that such questions might be addressed via a number of approaches, which he describes as: *experimental, history, and case-study* (Yin, 2003, p. 5).

For practical and ethical reasons it would not have been possible to subject participants to a critical incident, therefore an experimental approach was not feasible. Similarly, if the focus of the research had been solely on the success in surviving a critical incident, then a history approach might have been an option, but as the research was concerned with the wider issue of support training it was discounted (Yin, 2003, p.5). Therefore, after consideration of the various approaches it was decided that a case-study was the best method for exploring the research phenomenon. As with other research methods there are multiple definitions of 'case-study' but, as used in this thesis, the

term refers to the research method which Bromley described as:

[A] *'systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aims to describe and explain the phenomenon of interest.'*
(Bromley, 1990, p. 302).

Therefore an exploratory single case-study approach, based on Yin (2003) and Stake (1995) was chosen, as it best met the needs of the study. That is, a single case-study, would enable a normally concealed phenomenon (issues concerning post-critical support training) to be explored by the researcher (Stake, 1995).

The second reason for using a single case-study rather than a multiple study was based on resources. Negotiating access to other sites within the time available to complete the study meant that a comparison of settings was never a viable option.

The third reason for using a single case-study was opportunistic. Agreeing to undertake the Training Needs Analysis brought with it an opportunity to access a site, the Organisation, which would otherwise have been difficult, if not impossible, to access:

'The situation exists when an investigator has an opportunity to observe and analyze a phenomenon previously inaccessible to scientific investigation'

(Yin, 2003, p.42)

Therefore, in considering the best way to maximise the opportunity, with regard to the exploration of post-critical incident support, the flexibility of a case-study methodology (Berg, 2007) seemed the most appropriate.

Design of the Study

The aim in discussing the design of the study is to give the reader a sense of the steps taken in conducting the research, including issues, for example, data gathering, and time scales. More importantly, it also link is with the theory base of the study and indicates the type of knowledge that the study is attempting to produce. In doing so, consideration of the design aids the

transparency of the research process, which Silverman (2002) considers to be a prime requisite in establishing the validity of any study.

The design of the study reflected the protocol advanced by Yin:

- Overview of the project - project objectives and research questions
- Field procedures - credentials, access to sites and particularly, unit(s) of analysis. The units of analysis within the study are the individual interviews
- Questions - specific questions linking data-gathering to the research questions
- Guide for the report - outline, including criteria for analysing the data.

(Yin, 1994, p. 64)

Stake (1995) advanced a similar protocol, although, he placed greater importance on the philosophical aspects of the case method and the contextualisation of the study. Similarly, Berg (2007) regarded the identification of issues relating to the use of theory within the research process, and philosophical issues regarding the production of knowledge, as important considerations for case-study methodology.

Within the research literature, there is disagreement as to how far theory should influence the design and the process of the research (Berg, 2007). Yin (2003, p.29) considered that the use of theory separated case-study from other research approaches, such as, ethnographic research. Within the thesis, the use of theory, as identified in the literature, helped to shape the questions asked at interview and also the assumptions made when analysing the data. These theories included workplace learning, the critical incident and its effects, particularly in relation to trauma, and the appropriateness of a holistic approach to post-critical support training in comparison with an instrumentalist-rational approach. In addition it drew up theories of Human Resources and models of capital (human capital, and social capital) to explore the 'purpose' for offering training. Therefore, the research process may be described as 'deductive' not 'inductive'.

The influence of theory on the research process also raised questions regarding the neutrality of the researcher and objectivity in data-gathering.

The assumption made in the thesis was that given the inter-personal nature of qualitative interviews, it was not possible for the researcher to maintain a neutral stance (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000).

Negotiating Access

Researching any organisation raises issues of access. The difficulties, in accessing the research setting or participants within it, are a constant theme in research literature (Robinson, 1999; Gilbert, 1993). Managerial approval and support does not guarantee the participants' cooperation (Robinson, 1999). Fortunately, access was not an issue. The researcher had full access to both the Organisation's own staff and to their external suppliers. A Personal Identification Card enabled full access to all key buildings which enabled the researcher to roam, talk with people, and see any documentation relating to the study. External suppliers were, as might be expected in the commercial sector, more circumspect regarding access to their agency's literature. On occasion, it was necessary to make a formal request but this did not impede the gathering of information.

Participants

With reference to the selection of participants who would be willing to take part in the study, Feigin, Orum and Sjoberg (1991) highlighted the importance, within a case-study, of defining the unit of analysis (participants) to ensure the rigor of the research. In this study, the unit of analysis (Yin, 1994) were employees and other key personnel who had had experience of being directly involved in a critical incident or who had responsibility for post-critical support. In addition, the context for the case-study included other persons; colleagues of participants, for example, and other sources of information (for example documentation) as suggested by Yin (1994).

Stake, (1995) commented on the importance of case studies having boundaries and, within this study, the time restraints for completion, together with the number of participants that it was possible to interview, provided such boundaries. Participants were identified for interview with a view to optimise what might be learned in the time available for the study, (Yin, 2003; Stake,

1995, 2000; Feigin, Orum and Sjoberg, 1991). In total thirty-two participants were interviewed over an eight-month period. For the thesis, the specialist knowledge they were regarded as having was based on their involvement with a workplace trauma-inducing critical incident, either directly or in the management of the incident. In this way, collectively they identification might be regarded as '*purpose sampling*' (Silverman, 2002, p. 108).

Twenty-two participants had initially been identified by the Organisation for inclusion in the training needs analysis having volunteered to take part in response to a memo sent out to managers by the HR (Human Resources) section. They had all directly experienced direct a critical incident and had since been deemed by the Organisation, and themselves, to have recovered. These participants were drawn from a cross-section of posts and different levels of seniority and had worked for the Organisation from between four to thirty years.

The additional ten participants (Appendix 7) were identified during the course of the research process when other participants and HR managers spoke of them by name or referred to services which they provided. Their inclusion illustrates Silverman's (2002) comment regarding the '*the strengths of qualitative research design...[in allowing] for far greater ... flexibility*' (ibid, p. 108). The criteria for inclusion were based on the knowledge they had of the support services and business continuity and/or their experience of managing post-critical incidents.

Four of the participants were HR Managers with responsibility for commissioning training and its direct delivery. Two were managers with responsibility for business continuity. Together, their information helped to contextualise the way in which this study related to the Organisations' wider training strategy. The information they gave elucidated particular points in relation to the rationale for commissioning training.

The remaining four participants who were interviewed were external service

providers. These consisted of two external training consultants who have also worked, or were working, for the Organisation's training section and two counsellors from the agency appointed to offer professional support to employees following a traumatic event. The purpose in interviewing these participants was to aid understanding of the information gleaned from interviews and a review of the Organisation's and service provider's documentation. In this way it was possible to obtain a picture of how critical incidents, and the responses made to manage them, were perceived in different parts of the Organisation.

Data collection

Throughout the eight-month period that I was engaged with the study I had frequent access to an assigned liaison HR manager who provided me with background information regarding the Organisation's culture, values and work methods. This manager also, when required, identified key people who it was thought might be able to make a contribution to the study and, on occasion, set up the introduction. In addition, by means of regular phone calls and emails, they clarified information for me or sent me quantitative data and other information.

During a briefing meeting with my Human Resource liaison Manager, it was confirmed that the Organisation already held a great deal of quantitative data on critical incidents. This included a whole range of incidents that had occurred; for example, attempted robberies, hostage-taking, fires, floods, and major bomb alerts, as well as their frequency, geographical location, the effects of specific recorded incidents on the Organisation as regarding the staff, buildings, and business continuity and, finally, the corresponding responses made to manage them. With regard to staff support, there was additional quantitative evaluative data covering areas such as the percentage rate of people receiving a service within a specified time, the level of service, and the reported rates of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. However, from the initial scrutiny of this quantitative data, and discussions with the HR manager

responsible for its gathering, it was not possible to identify data that would confirm whether existing support services were the ones required by users. This deficiency was due to the data collection being centred on existing services provision. Accordingly, the data could not be used to identify gaps in the existing service provision. More importantly, there was no data regarding service users' concerns regarding their own perceived needs and the kind of support they most valued. As such, based on existing data, it was not possible to consider whether users felt they might have been better prepared to cope with the incident and its aftermath.

It therefore appeared that it was this personal aspect of participants' understanding of critical incidents, that is, from a personal constructionist perspective (Kelly, 1955) and their perceived support needs arising from it, which could be profitably explored as potentially useful data might be gleaned about participants' understanding of critical incidents. That is, it might yield data regarding the type of support training that could help a person cope with the aftermath of such an incident. This data might be utilised in the development of workplace training. It was anticipated that the qualitative data gathered from participants' accounts might be more illuminating than that obtained from taking a quantitative approach for, as noted by Cohen and Manion (1989), this method yields the *softer, impressionist* data. Whilst the scrutinising of existing qualitative data and documentation gave information as to the frequency, type and location of incidents, it was assumed that the restrictions imposed by a quantitative approach imposes cannot accurately reflect the depth of participants' experiences in comparison with qualitative data (Silverman, 2000).

In this way, the case-study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches and drew upon multiple sources of evidence. The use of different methods for gathering data helped to produce '*converging lines of inquiry*' (Yin, 2003, p.98). This facilitated the collaboration of data and the identification of inconsistencies and also enabled the use of both qualitative and quantitative data (Yin, 2003; Staker, 2003; Flyvbjerg, 2006). Of the six methods for gathering data suggested by Yin, (2003, p86) all were used in varying

degrees. How they were used in the thesis may be summarised as:

1. Documentation: Review of the Organisation's policies and procedures relating to business continuity, emergency procedures, training procedures.
2. Archival Records: Data relating to previously reported critical incidents and the support offered.
3. Interview: The main source of data-gathering. In total, thirty-two participants were interviewed
4. Observation: When visiting workplaces for interview, and also at the 2004 Birmingham Conference, there was an opportunity for both direct observation and participant observation. Participant observation included joining a small group of HR Training Managers and talking about related business or training policy prior to conducting the scheduled interview.
5. Direct observation included watching the interplay between staff members to observe how they support each other. For example, in endeavouring to be on time for appointments, there was a tendency to arrive early. This provided the opportunity to meet and observe other staff and the dynamics of the workplace. Often one or two people would be known by name through their involvement with the setting up of initial appointments. This helped to create a friendly and more relaxed atmosphere which extended to the interview. On meeting interviewees, it also facilitated discussion about the work setting. Both physically and emotionally this located them in a familiar area (their workplace) which represented security. It also helped to provide a safe environment, which is more conducive to the exploration of potentially sensitive issues (Kennedy and Charles, 2001).
6. Physical Artefacts: These consisted of the various mottos sent out by the HR department that were displayed in various parts of the building and offices, for example, *'Today is the first day of your new life'*. Because of their ephemeral nature and the use to which they were put, partly as decoration, they seemed more suited to this section rather than being classified as documentation.

Different forms of data-gathering complemented each other. For example, a part of the data-gathering might be described as 'ethnographic' in nature for it consisted of information gleaned while visiting the various workplaces, that is to understand the culture (Spradley, 1979) and make observation within the setting (Warren and Karner, 2005). Often, as noted above, while waiting for an appointment there was an opportunity to talk with other staff. As they invariably knew the reason for the visit, they would offer information or express opinions about critical incidents. During one visit, for example, before the start of the interview, the participant and his two colleagues discussed their management of a particular incident. Later, during the one-to-one interview he returned to this subject. Having already obtained valuable insight on how the other members of the team reacted, and their relationships with other sectors of the Organisation, it was possible to take the conversation to a greater depth; it moved away from descriptions of what had been successfully managed, to the expressing of concerns about the ability to cope. The chance meeting with the other colleagues gave a greater understanding of the service they had provided. It was therefore possible to contextualise the incident and obtain a richer experience from the participant's account. In addition later, when visiting another section, it was possible to draw upon this experience when meeting with the staff to whom they had referred.

Interview Methods and Instrument

As referred to earlier, the gap perceived in the Organisation's existing data collection suggested a need for the gathering for qualitative data. Accordingly, the qualitative data obtained from individual interviews with participants constituted the main source of data used for analysis. The theoretical bases for the interviews drew upon both narrative and psycho-social research approaches. The psycho-social approach was based on the work of Holloway and Jefferson (2000). They defined this as follows:

'We think that, though it is far from transparent, there is a relationship between people's ambiguous representations and their experiences. ... But, tracking this relationship relies on a particular view of the research subject:

one whose inner world is not simply a reflection of the outer world, or a cognitively driven rationale accommodation to it. Rather, we intend to argue for the need to posit research subjects whose inner worlds cannot be understood without knowledge of their experiences in the world, and whose experiences of the world cannot be understood without knowledge of the way in which their inner worlds allow them to experience the outer world. This research subject cannot be known except through another subject; in this case, the researcher. The name we give to such subjects is psycho-social:

(Holloway & Jefferson, 2000, p. 4).

In this way, the psycho-social theory base provided a structure which makes possible the construction of meaning from the phenomena being explored.

An assumption, which influenced the approach taken at the interviews, was that participants, when offering an explanation, naturally resort to narratives in accounting for the 'whats' and 'whys' of an event (Carter, 1993). As Doyle and Carter commented:

'A story also contains information about presumed intention and motivation as well as a sense of audience, of who is looking in on events. Finally, a story by its very nature resists singular interpretation. In Iser's (1996: 19) words, story 'launches multifarious patterns'. A story captures nuance, indeterminacy and interconnectedness in ways that defy formalistic expression and expand the possibilities for interpretation and understanding.'

(Doyle and Carter, 2003, p. 130)

Whilst both approaches recognise the central importance of the participants' individual accounts, a case-study also offers the possibility of multi-perspective analyses (Yin, 2003), that is, it allows for the views of the wider group, and the interactions within it, to be heard and not just those of individual participants. In this way, the use of a case-study method allowed a holistic understanding to emerge which Feigin, Orum, & Sjoberg (1991) described as a 'cultural system of action'. A *cultural system of action* being the pattern of inter-related activities, which *actors* (here *participants*) in social situations engage. For example, observations of staff interventions with each other and conversations with staff prior to the planned interviews were all used to create a wider picture. Notes were kept and used in conjunction with the interviewing data. Such interactions helped to address Silverman's concern that:

'The fashionable identification of qualitative methods with an analysis of how people 'see things' ignores the importance of how people 'do things'. This means that the apparent identification of non-quantitative social science with the open-ended interview needs to be re-examined'. (Silverman, 2000, p. 283).

Cohen and Manion (2000, pp.270-272) in reviewing the literature pertaining to interviews, evidenced that the different types of interview should be regarded as a continuum where the extremes may be considered as informal conversation at one pole and closed quantitative interviews at the other. Between these two extremes are varying degrees of freedom as to what and how questions are asked. Accordingly, within the interviews there was a degree of variation regarding where they may be placed between the poles of the interviewing continuum.

The difficulty for the thesis was that that the range of interviews conducted, both 'informal' and 'formal' (Cohen and Manion, *ibid*), meant that precise classification was difficult. Whilst, as mentioned, the main body of data was obtained from the thirty-two interviews that were formally arranged, other interviews, which were much more informal, were initiated by participants. For example, four participants made contact after being interviewed giving additional information. In two cases, the conversation was longer than thirty minutes. The issues raised were pertinent and had not been part of the initial interview. Using data based solely on the actual planned interviews would have meant ignoring some important and informative data from informal discussions. This data, as noted earlier, gave a greater understanding of the work within the wider Organisation, it was also informative regarding the variety of training programmes available to different sectors. In this way, it helped to create an overall picture of the research setting and aided the analysis of information.

The interview method used may be described as 'semi-structured', 'guide' or 'focused' (Cohen and Manion, 2000). Fielding (1993) gives a clear description of this:

'Here interviewers simply have a list of topics which they want the

respondent to talk about, but are free to phrase the questions as they wish, ask them in any order that seems sensible at the time, and even to join in the conversation by discussing what they think of the topics themselves. The bit of paper the interviewer holds is called an 'interview guide' and once again the second word, 'guide' conveys a sense of the style of this approach, where interviewers take their own path within certain guidelines.' (Fielding, 1993, p. 136)

The interview guide that I used was based on discussions with HR managers and professional experience. As well as listing prompt questions, the interviewing guide also acted as an agenda for the interview, as explained to participants at the start of the interview proper. The actual guide consisted of a number of prompt questions (see Appendix 3). The questions covered three areas: first, 'Current role and Service', these were designed to elicit basic information and to act as 'ice-breakers' to help put the participants at ease. Secondly, 'Critical Incident and Support', which were questions relating to the incident in which the participants had been involved. Thirdly, 'Support Network', which were questions relating to existing support. Importantly, it also gave an opening to discuss current training, and the type of training which participants thought beneficial.

The interviewing guide was of great value in that the prompts provided a framework which, in addition to acting as an *aide-memoire* regarding the areas to be covered, also promoted discussion and further probing. It established a base for discussion that supported the interaction between the researcher and the participants (Mishler, 1986). The guide also enabled the discussion to return to the subject if participants strayed too far from the agreed agenda. In this way, a clear focus could be maintained. An additional benefit was that it also allowed emotional boundaries to be established. The guide gave the participants a sense of security as to what issues would be discussed. In this way, it allowed participants to prepare themselves reporting what they might want to say or choose not to say (Kvale, 1996, pp 11-120). It also helped to create a time boundary. People who have had traumatic experiences find that their sense of boundaries can be badly affected. If an interview seems to be taking a lot longer than they were led to believe, they can feel persecuted by the experience. This in turn can create a feeling of powerlessness and being once more a victim (Kennedy and Charles, 2001).

The choice of questions that participants were asked, in addition to recounting their experiences of critical incidents, also enabled them to explain their understanding of existing training and support, and voice concerns regarding existing and future provision. At various stages of the research process the interviewing schedule was reviewed. For example, after the pilot stage of the first two or three interviews, questions based on participants' accounts of critical incidents and subsequent support were modified. Later on in the research process, service managers were quizzed more on training and education issues than on current role and involvement with a critical incident.

The Interviewing Process

The actual interviewing process was far more complicated than a linear presentation of arranging appointments, conducting interviews, recording data and analysing data would suggest. In addition, the interviewing process was itself very emotionally tiring. Interviewing participants, especially those in a distressed state, can be just as emotionally difficult and physically tiring for interviewers (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000).

After obtaining the list of twenty-four potential participants from Human Resources, all were contacted and appointments for interviews were confirmed with twenty-two participants. Two of the potential participants were not able to take part in the study, one due to illness and the other due to retirement. In addition to arranging interviews, the purpose of this initial contact was to introduce the researcher and to give participants the opportunity to reconsider whether they wished to engage with the study. In addition, it gave participants information regarding the interviewing process. It was hoped that this first contact would help to create a sense of joint ownership by enabling participants to control the time of the interview and to explore what would be an acceptable method of recording information. In addition, it gave the opportunity to assure participants that any information they cared to share would be treated with full respect and confidentiality. An advantage of making this initial contact was that it helped to form

relationships. By the time of the interview I had already spoken a number of times to both participants and their immediate colleagues.

Participants were interviewed either by telephone or face-to-face. Although, ideally, it would have been preferable to give participants the choice as to how they were interviewed, this was not always feasible given the time-scale for the completion of data-gathering and the geographical spread of the group. The decision to conduct telephone interviews (two in total) was based on being able to gain access to participants within the time-frame for completion and therefore the Scottish call-centre and the offshore island branches were not visited. Face-to-face interviews are preferable as it was possible to attend to non-verbal communication as well as to the verbal (Lishman, 1994). In addition, the familiarity of the setting helped put participants at ease and gave them some control of the situation, as the researcher was being invited into 'their space'. In addition, physically seeing a person's workplace, its size, location, etc., helped to contextualise some of the concerns raised.

All ten service managers/providers were contacted directly, either by telephone or by meeting them in other situations, to ask if they would be willing to be interviewed as part of this study. All those asked, agreed and were subsequently interviewed. As envisaged, some of these interviews could be conducted concurrently whilst interviewing the first twenty-two participants, while others would continue after the initial analysis of the data had begun. This allowed for flexibility in identifying and interviewing other key participants and enabled specific information obtained from earlier interviews to be checked for accuracy. Examples of these were to establish the commonality of procedures for employees who were applying for training and to understand the counselling service regarding the type and length of support available to employees.

One of the skills required by the researcher was to be able to conduct interviews in a 'sensitive manner'. That is, having an awareness of the effects that the interviewing process and questioning might be having on the participant, and taking responsibility for this. Being sensitive to participants'

emotional needs starts well before the actual interview. In this instance, it involved considering how best to make the initial contact when first receiving the list of potential participants. One could not assume that participants would want to participate or that they had the time to participate. For example, when making the initial direct contact with participants, due to the demands of their work, and mindful of the fact the interviewing period required contacting people just prior to and after Christmas, which was a particularly busy period, a time for the initial telephone conversation had to be negotiated. This was to ensure that there was sufficient time to discuss the study fully and to confirm their agreement to be interviewed.

Finally, before embarking on the interviews it was established with the human resource manager that, in the event of a participant being distressed by recalling their experiences, then full support, such as counselling, would be available. This information was given to all participants as part of the introduction at interview. On a positive note HR reported (August, 2004) that, no participant had requested additional support.

Ethical Issues

The research process also gave the opportunity to engage with some of the ethical dilemmas which researchers face when working with personal, sensitive issues, such as those experienced by participants. The framework used to guide the research was based on the work of Peled and Leichentritt (2002). In their review of ethics within published social work research papers, they identified five interrelated issues. These, they suggested, should be the underlying assumptions that guide ethical research. These are:

- i. The research ethics are an integral aspect of the research act and of the phases in the research process
- ii. Ethical research empowers participants of vulnerable and disenfranchised groups
- iii. Ethical research benefits participants

- iv. Ethical research prevents harm for participants and involved others
- v. Ethical research requires researchers' technical competence.

(Peled & Leichtentritt, 2002, p.148).

All these things influenced the research process. Although these points are presented as discreet entities, in practice, they are often inter-related. Two examples will serve to illustrate this. The first related to people's willingness to engage with the study and links with point (iv) regarding potential harm for participants and point (v) relating to interviewing in a sensitive manner. The Organisation had an established culture of research and employee involvement. As reported by a HR manager, the bulk of this research tended to be quantitative studies, mainly for gathering statistical data. This particular study, as noted earlier, required a different approach. It necessitated interviewing participants who had had unpleasant and, in some instances, traumatic experiences. The interview itself might negatively affect the person by re-awakening memories of past events (Garland, 1998). In addition, participants may fear personal information becoming public knowledge, (Edwards and Ribben, 1998). Therefore, in order avoid participants being, or feeling, abused (Myers, 1994), it is important to ensure participants are freely willing to engage with the study.

The second issue related to point (ii) the empowering of participants and the potential benefits for participants (point iii). Given that many participants had been 'victims' of critical incidents there was the possibility that engaging with the study would be for them a cathartic experience. Although the study did not set out to be emancipatory research, nevertheless, the possibility of this occurring had to be considered. A potential difficulty in emancipatory research is that it might appropriate the voices of participants rather than allowing them to be heard. This dilemma has been highlighted by feminist researchers, particularly those who have researched women survivors in areas of stress and abuse (Alcoff and Gray, 1993). There is an ethical issue of ensuring that, within the final report, a faithful representation of the participants' personal accounts is given. This concern was raised by Edward and Ribbens (1998) who identified the conflict between the academic audience and being true to

the knowledge gathered in personal and intimate social settings.

For example, part of the data collected required participants to move away from the public accounts that they had constructed for the police, family, concerned employers and, to an extent, personal counsellors, and to encourage them to express other aspects of their experiences. This may be, as one participant disclosed, the acknowledgment that, despite a raft of good intentions and support:

'People, outside of us who were there, they don't understand...Oh they try to, my husband was truly upset and so good the way he would just let me sit there not saying anything.. but.. it's just so different. I couldn't really explain, you just had to have been there'.
(Comment made by a participant who had been involved in a hostage taking).

There was concern that in taking the participant's personal experience into the public area, they might feel they have lost something or something might have been taken from them. Writing about women's experiences, Mauthner and Doucet (1998) identified similar dilemmas. They suggested that researchers need to reflect on such issues and, in particular how, in publishing reports, there can be further *'loss, abuse and disempowerment'* 'by the way the researchers have taken participant's *'voice, agency and ownership'*'. (Mauthner and Doucet ,1998, p. 138-139). In attempting to remain true to the accounts given by the participants, extracts from the notes taken when gathering data have been quoted in various sections of the thesis. As far as it was practicable, personal details and social issues that participants shared have been included. For example, information about a participant's family, the participant's emotional history, the length of time they have worked in a particular location and their relationships with other colleagues. In most cases, in keeping with a narrative perspective (Doyle and Carter, 2003), the participants themselves placed their personal story in a social, family or work context. For example, in Jay's account of an attempted robbery on her office, she gave a brief synopsis of the event which included a complete list of all those who worked in the office. She recounted the names of both the staff that were present and those that were absent at the time of the raid. She then

gave the individual reasons as to why these colleagues were not present. Whilst such information was not directly relevant, it enabled her to place the event and herself in context. In turn, this also allowed her to express feelings about the arbitrary nature of such events and her own misfortune as opposed to the good fortune of those who were not involved.

For the researcher, being aware of ethical issues did not lessen the difficulties of dealing with the dilemmas relating to issues of participation and the culture of the Organisation. All organisations have issues of power and control and being granted permission to access participants could be regarded as having a political dimension (Branner, 1987, p. 167). The Organisation had ultimate control as to *'who may'* and *'who may not'* take part in this study. Being centred within a workplace, it seemed ethically important to know whether participants had volunteered or whether they had been coerced into taking part. The problem for me when addressing this issue prior to the start of the TNA was that such issues had previously never been questioned. A change in the tone of the Training Manager's voice suggested that raising the issue had offended his sensibility and, by extension, that of the Organisation, which for him was suggesting that coercion might have occurred.

This issue was a potential source of conflict. It was necessary to work in collaboration with the Organisation, but to recognise that my position, as researcher conferred a certain authority and, therefore, a responsibility to safeguard the interests of participants. As Branner (1987) identified, part of the researcher's task, in trying to gain access and recognising the power brokerage, was having

'....to enter the symbolic world of those he is to observe: he must learn their language, their customs, their work patterns, the way they eat and dress and make himself respectable. There is an initial period when he must understand what expectations are held of him and when he is taught how he can behave. But he also has to teach respondents so that he can carry out his observer role effectively.'
(Branner, 1987, p169)

Ethically, without wishing to alienate the Organisation, I thought it best to

check participants' willingness to be interviewed. Therefore, in line with Alcott and Gray (1993), during the initial setting-up of the interviews, participants were asked their reasons for taking part (i.e., who initially prompted them to take part). This was addressed further at the start of the interviews. In addition, either at the initial contact or prior to the start of the interview, participants were also given information about the researcher's background. This was to help them decide what they did, or did not want, to disclose.

Recording

During the course of the study, issues of recording data were reviewed on a number of occasions. Within the literature relating to research methods, the standard advice to researchers is to tape-record interviews (Berg, 2007; Gilbert, 1993). The assumption being that participants would co-operate with this. What seems absent from the literature are situations where participants are reluctant for interviews to be tape-recorded. In addition to methodological issues as to the merits or otherwise of interviewing, recording at interviews raises a number of ethical issues. It demonstrated Peled & Leichtentritt's (2002) findings of ethics being '*an integral aspect of the research act and of the phases in the research process*' (2002, p.148).

Initially, all interviews were to be tape-recorded. This has certain advantages. When analysing data it may prove useful in confirming the accuracy of what was said during the interview (Silverman, 2000). In addition, it can also enable certain aspects of non-verbal communications to be considered; for example, the exact length of a silence, and the hesitation when discussing a particular point. These can be important clues as to how well the participant understood what was being asked and how comfortable, or not, the process appeared to be for them. Tape-recording interviews also allows for the direct scrutiny of the data by a third party. This can be useful in verifying the validity of the findings, especially when attempting to give participants a 'voice', although a potential problem of such a focus is that '*it is insufficiently attentive to the detail or contradictions*' (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000, p. 56)

Many of the participants, as reported by the HT Liaison Manager, were used to public speaking and all participants gave presentations as part of their work. It was therefore surprising that many of the participants were reluctant (to the point of refusal) to have interviews tape-recorded. After seven rejections from the first eight people contacted, the idea was abandoned. The main reason given by participants was that they felt a tape-recording might inhibit their responses. This decision, not to tape-record, seemed to be the correct one, as confirmed later, when one participant who commented on the interview said:

'this is important to me and I want to feel that I can discuss things and say things openly. I don't want to be guarded in what I am saying or worry later that I might have said too much.'

(Taken from the researcher's notes)

Another participant commented:

'It's not that I am bothered about being critical about the Organisation, that doesn't worry me, it isn't the issue. I don't want people identifying my voice and realising that some of the personal stuff is mine... it just wouldn't be right for me. I have used the counselling services and they were bloody good...I knew they were confidential and I would like to think this is the same. The Organisation is a small world and it is difficult to recognise someone in a report but hearing a voice is different.'

(Taken from the researcher's notes)

As the tape recording of interviews was not acceptable to participants, notes were taken during the interview with the permission of the participants. These were later used as the basis of the analysis. For the sake of consistency, the same method of recording was used for all participants. Whilst some participants would have been open to the recording of their interview it was considered that the additional time spent transcribing these tapes might bias the data. There was a possibility that the process of transcribing the tapes might result in a greater familiarity with this data in comparison with that gathered from other non-taped interviews.

Being trained and experienced in process recording, notation and recording of interviews and other observations was not a problem. Participants were asked

at the beginning of the interview if they objected to notes being made. None did, nor did they at any time make a request to view any of the notes. Written records and initial coding of information was on card. All information pertaining to participants was anonymised and stored in keeping with the requirements of the Data Protection Act (1996).

Methods for Analysing Data

Yin (2002) suggested that, within a case-study research the gathering and analysing of data should be concurrent. The process in this thesis might more accurately be described as moving to-and-fro between the literature, data-gathering and analysis. The approach for analysing the data 'pattern recognition' (Yin, 2003) was that different pieces of information from the case-study were related to the theoretical propositions, here, those relating to trauma, learning, humanistic education, and human and social capital. The pattern-making approach was influenced by the adaption of coding techniques suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990), itself based on Glaser and Strauss (1967). This covered such areas as: the use of identifying themes, coding data, assigning data to mutually exclusive categories, and the development of theories from the data. In doing so it accepted the following premises:

Premise 1: the approach to the analysis of qualitative data is broadly speaking a 'pragmatic' one.

In taking a pragmatic approach the analysis attempts to go beyond the dualisms of theory/practice, mind/body, or self/other which is in keeping with a holistic view. It accepts that the personal experiences of the researcher can shape their response to the data.

Premise 2: The analysis of qualitative data should be geared towards generating new concepts and theories.

Although the research process was in part deductive, it aimed to explore issues of training in the workplace, and the learning approach best suited to

post-critical incident training. In this the data may be regarded as attempting to generate new concepts regarding the most appropriate learning approach for post-critical support training.

Premise 3: *Theories should be 'grounded' in empirical reality.*

In using a case-study method, the research was not solely based upon the information given by training departments or the published literature, but sought also to explore the first-hand experiences of participants and the support available to them. The findings were based on the data provided from the accounts of participants. As part of this, the study was expanded to include participants offering support and services to those who have been involved in a critical incident. This enabled a wider perspective regarding changes within training to be obtained. Their inclusion allowed for points of information to be checked and matters relating to policy formation and implementation to be explored.

Premise 4: *Qualitative researchers should start out with an 'open mind'*

It should be noted, that 'open mindedness' is not the sole province of qualitative researchers but should be a requirement for all researchers. The literature on trauma and stress suggests that individuals react very differently. Therefore, following a critical incident, what people might wish to share regarding their own or other colleagues' reactions, may vary. As this was an exploratory study, it was not assumed that any 'solutions' or 'recommendations' regarding the training needs of participants would necessarily emerge.

Once participants' had confirmed their willingness to take part in the study, an appointment was made for interview. Because of the distance, and the winter weather, two interviews were conducted by telephone.

Conclusion

Any account of the research process is by its very nature selective. The aim of the chapter was to identify factors which have influenced the data-gathering and the analysis of data. Further, it has offered a rationale for using a case-study method. In doing so, this chapter addresses some of the design, research process, and ethical issues associated with the study. As part of this the units for analysis (Yin, 2003), i.e., participants, were discussed and the areas from where the data was to be gathered were identified.

In developing a theory base for the study, it was accepted that the psycho-social world of participants is unique to them and, accordingly, they are best placed to illuminate their experiences (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000). As part of this research process it recognises the 'gift-relationship' between the researcher and participant which places obligations on the researcher to safeguard the participant. Such protection includes considering the effects of the interviews on participants themselves (Alcoff and Gray, 1993).

Before moving on to consider the results, I would add that related issues concerning the limitations of the research and recording of data are discussed in the Conclusion, Chapter 6.

Chapter 4 Analysis of Results

Introduction: Analysis Categories

The aim of this chapter is to present the main findings which emerged from the analysis of the data. The objective being to evidence the questions posed in Chapter 1. These were:

- How does the working environment differ from that prior to 9/11, and what, if any, are the nature of these differences?
- How do participants' experiences of critical incidents inform their understanding of their learning/educational/ training needs?
- *Within an Organisational context:* Why is training perceived as the solution to offering post-critical incident support?

Before describing the individual categories it is important to stress that the research was not an 'assessment of risk', and therefore, predicting the probability of the occurrence of a critical incident was not a consideration.

It should be noted that, to aid clarity, and to convey a sense of the accuracy in the recording process, the part of the Organisation from where the data was gathered is indicated. In addition, for reasons of confidentiality, where participants are cited, real names have not been used.

Analysis Categories

Analysis of the data identified two main themes: Critical Incident and Existing Support, and Organisational Training Policy. Each of these main themes further sub-divided into a number of other categories which, in keeping with Yin's pattern-making approach (2003), and Strauss and Corbin (1990), are mutually exclusive.

The categories of analysis are:

1. Critical Incident and Current Support:

Understanding critical incidents.

Insecurity in the workplace

Perceptions of existing support

2. Workplace Training:

Post-critical incident support training

Organisational approaches to training

Evidence of change within training policy

Collectively, the categories in the first section, *Critical Incident and Existing Support*, helped to create a picture of the work environment and illustrated participants' concerns regarding critical incidents. The data was analysed in order to identify commonalities of concern amongst participants. The aim was to explore what support was available and what support might be further required. The objective was to consider the role of training in developing post-critical incident support for employees.

Under the second category, *Workplace Training*, the section on post-incident training illustrated the need for training and indicated areas that participants considered beneficial. The analysis of the data evidenced how training might be used in developing better support systems for staff following a critical incident. Within the last two sub-categories data analysis identified aspects of existing training policy, and trends or changes in this policy since 9/11. The analysis helped signpost the direction needed by the Organisation to implement an effective training programme.

1 Critical Incident and Existing Support

Participants' Perceptions of Critical Incidents

The first category concerned participants' perceptions as to what constitutes a critical incident. Visiting the natural workplace setting and seeing were they

were located and the differences in the physical layout of buildings proved beneficial. Physically seeing the workplace allowed for a greater understanding of some of the concerns expressed by participants. For example, talking about the evacuation of a multi-storey building within the Central London area, a manager asked the rhetorical question:

"You tell me where it would be safe to tell people to go? The emergency and local authority can't, so why are we pretending that there is somewhere?"

Similarly, when visiting South Wales, the poor network coverage of mobile phones was highlighted as a potential major problem. Seeing the isolated position of the building, in comparison with other sites, enabled a clearer understanding of the work environment. The significance of the location would not have been apparent had the site not been visited. Such visits helped to inform how participants identified critical incidents in relation to their own work-settings.

Therefore, it is perhaps not too surprising that the findings reflected concerns that arose in the participant's immediate work setting (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). When comparing the occurrence rates of critical incidents at the different work settings, the Organisation's own data highlighted an increased probability of certain staff groups being more likely than others to be involved in particular critical incidents. For example, Call Centres had greater incident rates of bomb hoaxes than the central IT section. In the analysis of data, it was possible to divide participants into three groups based on their work setting or areas of responsibility. These were:

- branch network staff,
- offshore island staff,
- senior level managers, support services staff, including external service suppliers.

Dividing the staff groups in this way enabled local factors to be identified and also the support services that might be needed. This was an important factor

for the study as it allowed for differences in local experiences to be identified as well as areas of common interest. The use of individual experiences enabled a range of different narratives to emerge (Doyle and Carter, 2003). Participants with direct experience of being a survivor of a critical incident described the critical incidents in which they have been involved. Each of these accounts aided understanding of how critical incidents are perceived and helped to illuminate the concerns and anxieties of participants.

Branch Network Staff

The potential for branch network staff to be involved in a violent incident or a raid was very real (as evidenced from the Organisation's own record of incidents). The Organisation's statistics estimated that nationally across the financial industry there were approximately two incidents daily. Although this does not preclude the possibility of other critical incidents, understandably, armed attacks were the incidents on which branch network participants focused. All branch network participants had been in one or more incidents and were aware of other incidents within their local area. Jay, during her interview described her own feelings regarding this:

Jay: "Up till then I thought I had been very lucky. I know most branches have had some involvement or been targeted but I was lucky that I have not been there. Like the two raids on my last branch. On both occasions, I was on my lunch break so by the time I got back it was all over.

Interviewer: How did you feel coming back the second time?

Jay: "I knew what had happened before I asked, as I walked down the road and saw the police outside I knew, it's funny what you know without really knowing. It took me some time to adjust to not being there when it happened. I was so relieved not to have been there but felt that I should have been, it didn't seem fair that I've got over twice and others had two lots.....I said I wouldn't make sense....but that's how it felt. I didn't say anything it was just something I felt and kept to myself. Maybe that's why I transferred here. When the two men pulled a gun (referring to the recent attempted robbery), I was in the back but just came through to see them. I vividly remember being surprised but not frightened. In fact, I did think, 'so this is it. This is what it must have been like for the others'. It is so jumbled to think about as this was all within seconds. I remember seeing the wall chart with the procedures and just followed them."(Jay, formerly branch network staff, currently Regional Manager in Central England

What emerges from this account is Joy's sense of feeling an observer and disconnected from the event, all of which are described in the literature pertaining to trauma and critical incidents (Myers, 1994). It is interesting in the way Joy also called upon workplace culture to understand what was happening and what she was feeling, which would appear to support Lave and Wenger's (1991) findings of the workplace being a place of learning

Off-shore Islands Staff

The culture, closer social bonds and slower pace of island life means that the Organisation's off-shore island staff are perceived, by themselves and others, as being more closely knit than those on the mainland. As one participant noted, *'everyone knows everyone else'*.

Participants could not recall a critical incident, raid, etc., that they themselves had been involved in, although they were aware of such things happening on the mainland. Those interviewed thought that information and procedures could be slower to filter through than on the mainland. This also seemed to apply to accepting the potential for critical incidents to occur. As one participant noted:

"We hear about things happening to colleagues but it's similar to reading about muggings or bombings on the mainland. It's something that you read about; you know it happens but somehow not here. You can get smug about it and put it down to living in such places rather than thinking it just hasn't started to happen here. ... I suppose we don't want to hear about it...too worrying really. Well, I suppose like everything else we will get it later, we are always that bit behind here, it's what we like about it."(Anne, employee of thirty years standing with the Organisation)

Similar views were expressed by a participant from the Channel Islands. In both interviews, participants commented that they could not imagine a *'Twin Towers'* incident happening there. Such comments were not prompted by my questioning but came as a response to a general question regarding the types of events that would be likely to occur. The paradox was that, in their replies, they had at some level imagined such events, even if only to dismiss them as

being improbable. What strangely emerged from interviewing one particular off-shore island participant was the sense of loss and devastation that the branch felt when one of their young colleagues had a fatal tragic accident. This was regarded as a major critical incident and the reported effects on staff and many customers took over a year to deal with. The potential for death was a strong theme in the accounts given by many of the participants which the literature suggests is regarded by many as the ultimate horror (Landau, 1997).

Managers, Support Services Staff, and Service Suppliers

This group consisted of managers, support staff, and service suppliers who did not work in office branches. The participants in this group, had great differences in their work settings regarding their location, size, and the range of work undertaken. Whilst there was less likelihood of these participants being involved in an incident of direct violence or robbery, the nature of their work made them alert to the possibility of critical incidents occurring. In particular, some participants within this group were responsible for Facilities Management or ensuring business contingency planning and therefore had a keen understanding of the potential damage that a major critical incident could cause both to the Organisation's infrastructure and to staff.

The type of critical incidents which participants reported having dealt with included; fire, flood, explosions due to gas leaks or arson attacks, terrorist threats and bomb threats. Some of these events involved highly organised operations with the police and emergency services. For this group, the potential for a major incident, especially in the aftermath of the World Trade Centre, the bomb attack on the HSBC bank in Turkey, and the London Bombing of June 05, was a real possibility.

Understanding Critical Incidents

A potential drawback to using the attack of 9/11 as a milestone to plot change was that critical incidents can be erroneously equated with terrorist attacks or events of a similar magnitude. As noted in Chapter 2, not only are critical incidents difficult to define, but it is the individual's perception of the event (Kelly, 1955) that is damaging, not necessarily the actual event itself. Similarly, whilst the range and type of reactions provoked by critical incidents are well documented, it is not possible to predict with any accuracy an individual's reaction to a particular event (Sattler, 2003). Therefore, before exploring how training might best be used to support people caught up in a critical incident, it was useful to hear accounts of the types of incident experienced by participants. In addition, to hear how they managed and coped with the consequences in the aftermath of the incident. Such personal accounts supported the literature relating to trauma by reflecting the uniqueness of the experiences for each participant (Ungar, 2003) and illustrating many of the features associated with trauma (Appendix 3). An illustration of the range of reactions that might occur is illustrated in the accounts of two participants.

Pat was a woman in her mid-thirties. She was married and had two young daughters. Her husband, John, whom she often referred to, had been extremely concerned for Pat following a particularly violent robbery at her place of work. For about nine months after the event, he had tried to persuade her to leave. Over the last six months he had stopped doing this and had started to notice how much better Pat was coping and getting on with life. Because of his concern and his anxiety that Pat should come to no further harm, Pat told of how she tried to present herself to John as being more secure than she really felt. She commented upon how the incident had affected communication between them. She reported that, while for him and the rest of the family she presented as her old self, there were occasions when she '*was guarded*' in what she said:

"I can be at home sometimes watching TV, and not just violent things or things that you could say were reminding me of what happened and then I realise that I haven't been following it [the TV programme] for a while. I have to think about what I have been watching and then think about what it was that I was thinking about. I know it will be something about the incident and for a moment I am in a state where I both need to know what I've been thinking about but don't want to think about IT, if you know what I mean. Do you understand? Do you follow? I know it's hard and difficult to follow. Sometimes John will say, 'Penny for them' and I just try and laugh it off. I can't explain, not really, its too complicated and anyway what could I say, that I've been thinking about something that I don't want to think about?" (Pat, senior branch network staff, Wales)

Pat's account describes the sense of withdrawal a person may face when needing time to reflect and make sense of what has happened to them (Myers, 1994). The recognition of the impact that the incident has had on her is part of the process of regaining her emotional equilibrium (Golan, 1978) and may be considered as a normal reaction (Trimble, 1985). Therefore, regardless of the anguish and distress it may have been causing her, it might be argued that, in recognising the severity of the incident and the effects it has had on her, Pat's reactions were a healthy response (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005).

Very different reactions were experienced by Dave, a senior manager in his forties who had worked for the Organisation for twenty-three years. He had been involved in a number of incidents, four in total. One had involved an attempted robbery, one a hostage-taking situation and two were bomb-related incidences. In both the bomb alerts, devices had been found and dealt with by the bomb squad. Working with the emergency services was, '*great but worrying*'. As he explained, it was good to know that you had professionals with you but:

"It didn't alter the fact that it was ultimately your decision to evacuate and tell people that they could re-enter the building. That is some pressure to have, you know it should be OK but until you do it there is always some uncertainty, like when you first have to search the building looking for anything that might be connected to the bomb."

The last incidences had occurred two-and-a-half years before and were within a fortnight of each other. That he was able to give both specific dates and times was an indication as to the traumatic impact that it had. Although he

described them as “*ill-conceived, badly-managed attempted robberies*” combined, they had a serious effect on Dave:

“For a long time I just carried on as before, but more and more I started getting up-tight, arguing all the time over everything. It was an old mate that I had worked with for years on another site that sat me down and talked to me. I remember arguing that it was nothing to do with the robberies and as he knew, I had faced a lot worse...but as I argued I knew he was right and I had to finally admit it. The counselling services were really useful to me during that time”. (Dave, FIT manager, southern England)

What is noticeable about the account was the way that Dave had reacted differently in two, seemingly, similar situations (Ungar, 2003). In addition, as identified by Parry (1990) and Garland (1998), it was the cumulative effects of the two incidents that affected his sense of being. It resulted in him avoiding reflecting on the incident by displaced reactions of anger.

Together, these two accounts serve to illustrate how participants’ responses to an incident differed both from person to person and from incident to incident as identified by the literature (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). Such differences were further evidenced by other participants when they were describing their post-incident reactions.

Pat’s need for reassurance that she was being heard and Dave’s misplaced anger are examples of a common concern reported by a number of participants, the difficulty of expressing personal feelings. One person recognised that they had this difficulty prior to the incident, but thought that the experience had diminished their ability to communicate. Such difficulties, as noted in Pat’s account, were not confined to the workplace but also extended to home life. Two participants, from different work settings, made similar comments regarding the difference in perception between how they perceived themselves, as opposed to how they felt other family members and friends saw them (Kennedy and Charles, 2001).

Perhaps the main significance of these and the other personal accounts was that, in illustrating the effects that a critical incident may have on individuals they demonstrated a shared perception and commonality as to what might be considered a critical incident. In addition, it evidenced that for participants the

possibility of a critical incident occurring in the workplace seemed to be an accepted factor.

Insecurity in the Workplace

Given the continual history of national disasters it might be questioned why post-critical incident support should be considered of greater relevance now than before 9/11? It has been noted that demonstrating causal relationships is notoriously difficult, particularly in relation to subjective experiences (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000). Similarly, although the Organisation's own statistics evidence an increase in the rate of particular incidents, due to their quantitative nature, this data does not illustrate how such incidents were experienced by staff. Whilst it would be possible to by-pass the issue of staff welfare and merely point to the demands of the FSA for business continuity provision, this would mean that staff perceptions and concerns regarding insecurity in the workplace are ignored. For the Organisation, failure to consider such perceptions might lead to a lowering of staff motivation (Armstrong, 1999) and the failure to provide a rationale for employees to engage in training, both of which, as identified in the literature (Knowles, 1980; Jarvis, 2004) are important elements of adult learning. A lack of consideration of such issues would have implications for the success of any post-critical incident training that was developed.

One of the advantages of enabling participants to identify a range of incidents, and define for themselves a critical incident, was the opportunity it offered to identify indications of anxiety. From the concerns raised, and the language used, close analysis of participants' accounts made it possible to discern participants' perceptions of the workplace as being an increased insecure environment. Whilst it might be expected that participants who had direct involvement with a critical incident might be more apprehensive, other staff, who were not formally interviewed, made comments that indicated that they also felt the workplace was increasingly insecure.

Many of the symptoms associated with high levels of stress and trauma could

be gleaned in the language that participants used (Parry, 1990). For example, Jay said, *"I knew what had happened before I asked...I knew, it's funny what you know without really knowing"*. This would suggest that since her previous experience, she had carried the anxiety of anticipation of the occurrence of another incident. John's comment that his manager repeatedly requested him to *"put the whole thing behind us"* may serve to illustrate John's reluctance not to do so as much as his manager's desire to deny the event. John's reaction and words would suggest that his assumptive world (Rogers, 1969) has been attacked and his sense of security, particularly within the workplace, had been affected. Whether this was an external reality is not important. Subjectively, insecurity was what was being experienced.

Even those participants who had not had direct experience of a critical incident indicated symptoms of anxiety. For example, Ann, based in an off-shore branch, during her interview illustrated her sense of denial. She said, *"...I suppose we don't want to hear about it ...too worrying really"*. 'Bad things' do happen, and could happen, and the way of containing the anxiety that this provokes was to avoid hearing about such things. In a similar vein there were comments indicating misplaced anger, or internalised anxieties. This was particularly noticeable in the concern many participants expressed about having to inform relatives about the death of a loved one. The fact that it would not be their responsibility, as this would be a matter for HR or the police did not seem to soothe their anxiety. This was demonstrated by the frequent suggestions for communications training to deal with the matter. They carried the anxiety that the increased likelihood of a critical incident made the possibility of the death of a colleague a greater reality. Such fears might be considered as contributing to the participants' perception of the workplace as being more insecure. It should be noted that, in analysing the data, establishing the reality of this was not an issue, what mattered was evidence that they considered this to be the case, although it should be noted that Danieli, Brom and Sills, (2005) have described the post/11 insecurity as the *'new normality'* (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005, p. 2). For the thesis, this perception of increased insecurity is significant when attempting to understand existing post-critical incident support and how training may

address perceived shortcomings within the provision.

Perceptions of Existing Support

The study, as evidenced by participants, found many examples of good practice regarding existing support provision. In line with other employers, the Organisation has a range of support systems for the protection and promotion of staff welfare. Formal post-critical incident support was provided by direct managerial support, counselling services and written guides and procedures. In addition, there was strong evidence that a great deal of informal support comes from colleagues, including learning about existing support services, which would be supportive of Lave and Wenger's (1991) claim of learning arising from the development of communities of practice within the workplace. Planned exercises also gave the opportunity for Business Continuity Managers and Facilities Incident Teams to practise procedures for dealing with critical incidents.

The range, structure and accessibility of support services and joint exercises were not a direct concern of this thesis *per se*. The main concern was how existing support systems might relate to a training solution, i.e., how training might improve the support given to employees recovering from a critical incident. Therefore, before any training solutions could be considered, some indication was required of how adequate the existing support systems were.

In general, the comments made about the Organisation's responses to a critical incident were positive. All those participants who had been directly involved in an incident spoke highly of the Organisation. In particular, the data evidenced that participants greatly valued the support offered by management, HR and counselling services, immediately after an event had occurred. They perceived the Organisation as attempting to respond in an appropriate and sensitive manner. For example, one participant reported being "*valued*" and "*feeling listened to*" when, voicing her concerns after a critical incident, the times for delivering cash were altered.

However, there were also a number of less favourable comments regarding the assumptions that certain managers supposedly had. When asked to expand on one particular incident concerning a major bomb alert, three participants who had had various degrees of involvement made similar comments. These centred on the way a particular branch manager, had coped with the event. As one participant recounted:

"I must have still been in shock 'cos when he said don't worry about work tomorrow I wouldn't expect you to go back to the counter until the afternoon'. I just accepted it. It was only when I told my wife later, that I realised what I had just said. It was unbelievable given the awfulness of what had just happened. I thought that it might have been his way of coping with the situation but no, he actually was expecting us to do it. He must have said at least five times the following morning how we "no doubt wanted to put the whole thing behind us and get back to normal". There was no real understanding as to how it has affected us". (John, Western England)

Whilst, this account revealed John's concerns and anxieties, it also evidenced a number of other issues. First, it demonstrated a lack of understanding about the effects of a critical incident and the pathology of stress and trauma, as identified by Myers (1994). Secondly, it illustrated the poor interpersonal skills of the manager. In accepting the description of the manager's seemingly insensitive attitude as accurate, it raises issues regarding the nature of post-critical incident training in terms of module content and delivery. The training would need to maintain a balance between ensuring that employees like John's manager have the opportunity to develop sensitivity to the emotional needs of others without endangering their own emotional defence mechanisms (Inskipp, 1996). Achieving such a balance can be particularly difficult when attempting to produce a general training solution.

Participants recognised the value of the counselling services that were available to them as part of post-incident support. However, a number of participants, although pleased that it was available, considered that it was more beneficial for colleagues than themselves. In one instance, a branch manager who had organised his staff team's own debriefing considered the

outcome to be more successful than when it had been done by a counsellor following a previous raid. Another participant at a later interview supported this view. This further illustrated the importance of the role of human agency in giving appropriate support, when dealing with the aftermath of critical incidents. This example makes an interesting comparison with the reactions of John's manager that were described earlier, where the perceived lack of empathy made him feel undervalued, hindering his return back to work.

The degree of empathy demonstrated (Rogers, 1969) was a factor as to how successful participants viewed the counselling services. In one instance, participants compared one counsellor with their replacement counsellor and commented upon how the first had created a sense of support and security that was lacking in the latter. Two other participants expressed similar experiences evidencing the importance of empathy when offering post-critical incident support. Such views would seem to support Coleman's finding from support given to victims after the Hillsborough Fire (Coleman, *et al*, 1990).

The analysis of data relating to conducting exercises to stimulate a mock critical incident gave rise to some interesting points. Although, when asked, the manager and others involved in business continuity had mixed feelings about their usefulness, nevertheless, when asked to reflect on the possibility of a major incident occurring, participants raised a number of concerns drawn from such simulation exercises. Interestingly, their replies tended to express their own anxieties, for example, a fear that they, or other people, "*will react badly*" or "*let others down*". As one participant noted:

"In an emergency you don't necessarily do what you should do".

Other participants expanded on such fears and gave examples in which colleagues had failed to keep to procedures. In one instance staff failed to respond to a fire alarm because they thought it was "*only a fire drill*". On another occasion, a staff member, in his panic, sent out the wrong pre-recorded public announcement message. The use of phrases by participants, such as "*will react badly*" and "*let others down*" illustrated anxieties about not being in control, which is a strong feature of stress (Parry, 1990) and

emotional disturbance caused by trauma (Kennedy and Charles, 2001; Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005). Despite the findings from the literature relating to trauma and stress, in conducting exercises and in its staff support literature the Organisation, and perhaps more surprisingly its external specialist support services suppliers, seemed to give little consideration to a critical incident being emotionally de-stabilising to those involved. There was no indication of participants having been prepared for the possibility of themselves or others behaving erratically. Some of the HR managers did not appear to recognise the need for staff to be helped to understand their reactions (NCPTSD, 2000). This would seem to be in contradiction to the support structures which the Organisation provides that work on the premise that, employees need to understand their behaviour as part of the process which enables them to regain their emotional equilibrium.

As noted, the same omission was detected in the support literature which the Organisation provided. Part of the function of staff handbooks and procedure guides for dealing with emergencies and other identifiable events, was to help contain people's initial emotional reactions (Kennedy and Charles, 2001). Those of the Organisation were commented upon favourably by participants as helping to provide a focus within certain situations. For example, for fire-drills there was a clearly defined procedure. Participants evidenced that procedural guides were of little use for dealing with the critical incident in which they had been involved. Scrutiny of the documentation and participants' accounts indicated that, within the critical incidents procedure guides, assumptions were made that, excluded the possibility of stress and trauma affecting staff responses. While the tone of the critical incident policy procedures was reassuring and therefore helpful in containing anxiety, there was also an assumption that staff would be able to perform their duties to the required standard. This was a major issue for organisations when planning the implementation of policy where it might be reasonable to assume a certain level of competence (Newburn, 1993). However, this does not apply to human agency within a critical incident situation (Trimble, 1985). As noted above, such an assumption is contrary to findings in the literature relating to trauma

and the management of disaster (Kennedy and Charles, 2001). It ignores the negative psychological affects that a traumatic incident can have on the performance of those both directly and indirectly involved (Trimble, 1985).

2 Organisational Training Policy

One of the aims of this paper was to consider the evidence indicating possible changes within post 9/11 training policy. In an organisation that is committed to continual improvement and development, there is a wealth of data that can be gathered to evidence change (Storey, 1995). What was being sought was a greater depth of evidence that goes beyond surface changes, such as an increased training portfolio, opening of access, or flexible delivery. In the same way that critical incidents (specifically, 9/11) can be regarded as changing attitudes towards national security (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005), the aim of the study was to identify data which indicated a changing attitude towards workplace training. The data pertaining to this divided into two sections. The first section offers an understanding of the Organisation's existing approach to training. The second section attempts to identify evidence that indicated change within training since 9/11.

Post-Critical Incident Support Training

Participants' support for increased training was referred to earlier when considering a critical incident as perceived by the different sectors of the Organisation. As there was a high degree of unity amongst participants, it is useful to draw together the main points raised and deal with them collectively. As a general principle, all participants were in favour of training and thought it would be helpful in supporting people in a post-incident recovery period. Phrases, such as:

"it would have been helpful"; "you need to be aware"; "I'm not sure how useful it would now be for me but I think it would make a difference for people who had never been attacked".

This, and similar comments, helped to evidence participants' support for

training. Although all favoured training, the data indicated that there were differences amongst participants about the form such training might take. For example, concerns were expressed such as, 'who the target audience for training would be?', 'what might the content consist of?', and 'how would it be delivered?'. These concerns were more an expression of interest rather than strongly held opinions on 'what or what not' should constitute an appropriate training programme.

The issue relating to training content was one that mostly concerned participants. This needed to be dealt with sensitively (Dryden and Thorne, 1991). This very quickly became apparent whilst conducting the earlier interviews, when a participant asked:

"Do you think I should have done something different? I think so some times."

In a later interview another participant commented:

"..all those bloody guides, what's the use? I didn't know what to do... (deep sigh)... nobody had explained it."

Both comments referred to the way in which these two participants had reacted during a critical incident. They both had doubts about their actions and one had received counselling to deal with his distress at "*not being prepared*" (his description). Therefore, during the interview, care was needed to ensure that participants did not feel that either they 'had let the Organisation down' or that the Organisation had 'let them down'. That is, they might have been better prepared and both sides had failed to address this matter.

There were strong feelings that it might be impossible within a training programme to convey the experience of 'being in' a critical incident. Partly because of this, during discussion there was a tendency for participants to think initially in terms of existing procedures. When asked about the kind of training that they thought might be beneficial, participants initially referred to

existing training, such as emergency procedures, and its failure to deal with post-incident situations. When probed to reflect on post-incident support needs, they were able to make recommendations that went beyond existing provisions. Participants tended to be consistent in their recommendations. These included information about short and long-term effects of critical incidents, particularly shock and trauma, information on welfare-benefits and how they might best support others. For managers especially, issues of communicating effectively with people in a distressed state were seen as a high priority.

Evidence regarding the target groups for training was contradictory. Whilst all participants were in favour of training being available to all staff, some expressed doubts regarding the feasibility of this with the limited resources available. Such concerns may have reflected the fact that, as the Organisation's core business was controlling money, participants may have had a greater awareness of the financial implications. Certainly, the issue of costs was raised in relation to a number of areas. Most of the participants were in favour of open access to training. This could be regarded as supporting the 'one size fits all' solution as preferred by the Organisation. As one participant commented:

"If you're going to do it [training] then do it for all or don't bother, it should be no different from induction and no one questions that." (FIT Manager)

This tended to be the dominant view. Although equally, in contradiction to this, participants recognised that different people might have different training needs and therefore might need additional training. This last position would seem to mirror existing training policy whereby training is linked to job performance and is geared to the individual, not the workforce as a whole (Mathews et al, 2004).

Overlapping the issues of content and target audience were participants' concerns regarding how the training would be delivered. Once more, issues of experience, the uniqueness of the incident, and the highly charged emotions

that could be triggered by insensitive delivery were raised. A sense of this was encapsulated in the comment:

"I don't want anyone having to feel what I felt, whether in real-life or in training, but I also think the best way to help is to at least tell them what they can expect.....(wiping her tears)...to stop them thinking they are going mad'. I know you can't tell some people anything, they don't want to know. But at least if you give them something.....even in a general way, so that if things did happen they know what's happening to themselves." (Branch network staff)

The main issue regarding training delivery was how, in such situations, 'being sensitive to the needs of others' could be taught. There were differences in participants' replies as to the feasibility of how this might be achieved. Consideration of the data would suggest that the differences expressed by participants were a reflection of the way training and training delivery were perceived. For example, one participant referred to the 'hard-skills' training she had recently completed, adding that:

"It was great, but if you were talking about reacting to an armed man you could just point-out things and get people to copy, they wouldn't have a clue what you were talking about."

Here again, participants also linked the issue of delivery to resources and the potential audiences, regarding *who* and *how many* people were to be trained. For example, although best suited to the subject matter, the expense of face-to-face training might restrict this type of delivery to a small, specially identified, target audience.

Although endorsing access to training for all, some participants questioned the use of multi-media, and CD ROMs. They speculated as to whether a multi-media method would be able give factual information in a sensitive, unthreatening manner without increasing anxiety and alarm. If implemented, participants considered that a multi-media approach would need monitoring to ensure staff were able to access additional support if training was found to be emotionally disturbing (Dyden and Thorne, 1991). Based upon their own experiences of critical incidents, they thought the nature of the training

material may itself be stress-provoking (Inskipp, 1996). As such, some staff might only be able to engage with the training at a surface level, i.e., their emotional self-defence mechanisms (Garland, 1998) may act as a barrier to their being able to engage fully with the training. This would be unfortunate as it was the emotional aspect of the training that participants considered to be most valuable. This was summarised by a participant as:

"You need to understand what is happening to the inside of you not just the outside".

The use of multi-media, therefore, might potentially give an increased scope for people to opt out and not actively engage with the material. The evidence indicated that participants considered that in order to achieve any training programme there would be "trade-offs". In this instance, the costs and resources implication of extending training to the maximum number of staff would need to be balanced against the ideal way of delivering the training. As a result most of the participants supported the use of multi-media for delivering training.

Organisational Approach to Training

The area concerning the 'Organisational approach to training' was perhaps the most difficult for participants to comment upon and, in turn, for the researcher to analyse. As recipients of training, most participants, other than those directly involved with training, had little opportunity to obtain a complete picture of the Organisation's training strategy. As a participant commented when asked about this:

"It isn't normally an issue that you think about. I tend to be bothered about having to do IT training, and when I can fit it in. Or sometimes, if I can apply for a course that I've seen advertised.... but not really about the bigger business issues. I suppose, I should really because that is what Investors in People (IiP), is partly about".

The reference to the Government's quality assurance scheme, *Investors in People*, was significant as it indicated a wider understanding of the Organisation's development strategy being linked to training and development. Other participants, particularly Training and HR managers, were

able to be more forthcoming about this. They made direct reference to liP and to the Organisation's need to be competitive, which they connected to training and skills updating (Beardwell and Claydon, 2007).

The data in this section proved difficult to analyse because of the language which participants used. They seemed to use a jargon based on business management that was not always easy to fully comprehend. For example, when asked about training, most participants linked training policy to the Organisation's mission statements. More problematic to assess was whether this was a superficial understanding or a genuine understanding of policy. On occasion comments sounded trite or contrived, as if participants were reciting learned 'management speak'. This meant additional care was required in matching the rhetoric to practice. One participant (who had worked for seven years for the Organisation) spoke at length of being "*encouraged to take control of one's learning*" but during the interview confirmed that all his training to date had been at the insistence of his managers. Given that the Organisation had championed, via intra-net and other training publicity, employees being proactive in accessing courses, it might suggest that their publicity was not obtaining the desired result. Although, equally there are also a number of other explanations as to why this occurred, for example, certain managers might have been more forthcoming in their identification of training for staff, the individual may not have been motivated to applying for training; the publication may not have been inspirational.

In contrast to this, all participants including the one cited above, demonstrated an understanding of procedures needed to access any training, and obtain information regarding the range of training available. There was consistency in participants' comments regarding their understanding of existing training procedures. All knew how to find information about specific training programmes, how to apply for them, and the training sector's expectations, (patterns of attendance, completion of evaluation forms, etc.). They also had experiences of a wide range of training delivery methods, including direct teaching, and on-line teaching via their computer. Over one-third of those interviewed who were not involved in training delivery reported that they had

also taken advantage of the Virtual University learning resources to access a variety of courses or information at home, both for themselves or other family members. IT and language courses tended to be the ones cited.

Training officers, and some participants, talked about experiential learning, one referred to 'Kolb'. This reference was made by the participant's determination to learn and take something positive from the incident in which he was involved. As well as Kolb's model of the 'learning cycle' (Kolb 1984), participants also evidenced an awareness of a competence-based model, (Collins, 1991). Various participants cited it as being used in the development, planning, delivery and evaluation of training. Participants within the training sections confirmed the use of this approach, (see Appendix 1 Management Summary, for examples of the standard format required by HR and training sectors). The format was very similar to that used by public sector educational institutes who offered competence or module-based courses (Collins, 1991). Within the Organisation, this model was applied to both 'hard-skills' training, such as updating computer skills, as well as 'soft-skills' training, such as dealing with customer telephone enquiries. All participants, including those with responsibilities for training, tended to have a restricted view of skills, regarding them as arising out of the characteristics of the person. Participants made no reference to the possibility of skills being situation specific (Bradley *et al*, 2000). However, only two participants were asked directly about this. In both instances they said it was not an issue they had considered.

The dilemma, when analysing the data, was deciding how much weight should be given to workplace culture, particularly in relation to informal learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991). For this reason it was useful to consider some general aspects of training which was not post-critical incident specific. In this way, participants were able to demonstrate their understanding of some of the 'norms' and 'values' of the Organisation's training culture. For example, clearly evidenced by all participants was their understanding that the "*bottom-line*" (a term used by trainers and non-trainers alike) for accessing a training programme was the potential contribution which it made to increasing the competitiveness of the Organisation. This, as pointed out by a number of

participants, tended to be linked to profitability. As explained by a Training Manager, in this instance, profitability is a mixture of 'costs and business enhancement'. Some training programmes had open access as in was taken in the delegates' own time and delivered on-line. Therefore there were low costs for the Organisation. The expectation seemed to be that the more costly the training, the more it should enhance the Organisation's profitability either directly or indirectly. Directly, by increased tangible improvements, such as training in new financial products would lead to increased business. Indirectly as, for example, a specific IT skill required to carry out a piece of work. Again, the assumption, in line with Becker (1964) was that training would lead to increased profitability.

The concept of 'costs' has potential implications for other areas of HR policy, for example, equal opportunities. Where cost factors are important, decisions have to be taken regarding the inclusion and accessibility of training. Such decisions reflect how far the Organisation was attempting to develop equality of opportunity in access to training. When discussing critical incident training mixed comments were made, that were often inconsistent and contradictory. The major polarisation in participants' reasoning centred on recognising that any training should be available to all staff whilst suggesting that such a programme would be too costly to sustain. One participant in particular, arguing from a cost perception, strongly suggested that targeting particular staff groups might be:

"..potentially a better investment. It is both a more efficient and effective use of resources to concentrate on training staff that are most likely to be involved in a critical incident, for example, Regional Managers."

In this instance, the participant was a Regional Manager but other participants advanced similar reasons. One of the counselling service suppliers had concerns about the way training would be delivered with regard to ensuring that it was delivered within an emotionally supportive context (Dryden and Thorne, 1991). Although this might have been a 'vested interest', since his agency also offered training in this field, nevertheless his point was valid. In order for the training to be of benefit to delegates, it was important that the

special features of the training be taken into consideration. Many of the points the counselling service supplier made had been raised by most of the other participants, especially those who had been involved in a critical incident. Comments can be briefly summarised as:

- The training emphasis should be on developing awareness, not making people specialist support workers
- Developing awareness includes 'self-awareness' and awareness of others, i.e., how they or another person might respond in a highly stressful/traumatic situation
- The inclusion of practical elements such as where to access specialist help and information.

The inclusion of these features within a post-critical incident training programme has implications for the Organisation. In particular, it signals a requirement for training that would not be skill-specific but would take a holistic approach. Whilst such an approach was not new to HR training, as evidenced by the 'soft' approach taken to customer services training, the focus on the individual participating in the training rather than on the 'skills' required was indeed a new approach. The indication was that an instrumentalist/technicalist approach might not offer the best learning opportunities for employees. A more productive approach might be a humanistic learning approach, such as Rogers (1969). The advantage of such an approach is that it offers a framework for exploring personal awareness which, as identified by participants, would be a central feature of post-critical support training. That such an approach required change as regards learning approaches to existing training was evidenced by the Manager of the Virtual University. When discussing post-critical incident training being best suited to a humanistic learning approach he conceded that, for the Organisation, it:

"throws up some interesting questions, we are always in a state of change, and it might be that this is the direction some of the thinking has to move in. The problem for us (the training sector) is how this can be absorbed into other changes and challenges that we are now facing". (Reply given at the Organisations training conference, July, 2004)

The term 'change' was used a great deal by participants and on occasion it was not always clear what exactly they were referring to, even when further prompted. Participants, when talking about 'change' in relation to training approaches, seemed to use the term to describe aspects of the training process. Three general positions could be discerned. First, 'change' was used as a reference to the changes in the perceived learning needs of the Organisation's workforce. Secondly, it was used in relation to the change required in the way training was delivered. Thirdly, the term was used in relation to training strategies regarding the possibility of developing a humanistic learning approach within training policy (as noted above).

Evidence of Post 9/11 Change in Training

Data gathered for this section draws upon a wider range of sources than some of the earlier ones. In particular, data gathered from the training conference (Birmingham, July, 2004) for the Organisation's external training suppliers, and the subsequent information circulated (July, 2004) to delegates proved invaluable. It placed existing training policy squarely within a human capital approach whilst also attempting to operate within an instrumentalist/rationalist paradigm. This, seemingly incongruent, position was confirmed when interviewing services providers, HR staff and Training managers. All gave a picture of an organisation that placed great emphasis on training as a key element in its business strategy of maintaining and expanding their market share. As part of this, employees were viewed as rational decision-makers able to identify their own training needs and negotiate access to training. Terms, such as 'independent learner', 'self-directive' were frequently used by delegates. Equally, during discussion with three Organisation delegates, their comments indicated that a technical/rationalist approach was taken to staff compliance to undertake training. The power to direct employees to training programmes that have cost implications rests firmly with HR and line-managers. Other than for reasons such as illness, employees do not have the option to withdraw from prescribed training.

HR and Training Managers, in particular, recognised that a humanistic learning approach to post-critical incident support training went beyond their “usual criteria” as to whether a ‘hard-skills’ or a ‘soft-skills’ approach was required (Storey, 1995). There was an acceptance that training needed to move more towards the development of ‘awareness’ rather than job enhancement. The commissioning of the Training Needs Analysis (Novak, 2004a) evidenced the recognition that a change in training emphasis was needed and the beginnings of this process. Additional evidence was from comments made by Facilities Incident Teams and Business Continuity Planning (BCP) managers. As one BCP manager, describing the previous three years of planning for business continuity, reported:

“First we had to develop IT systems and a new database, then we moved to buildings security and associated emergency procedures, and now it’s the turn of staff, and how to best protect and look after our people.” (BCP Manager Western England)

The commissioning of the Training Needs Analysis (Novak, 2004a) on critical incident support further evidenced changes within training policy. Although the commission of the TNA was not unusual in itself, the criterion for the selection of a research officer was. At Board level, there was an awareness that, post 9/11, something different was needed and therefore, they decided to appoint a person with background in mental health practice in addition to the more usual education/management training. Both the liaison officer and training participants commented that this was the combination of a long process of consultation to ensure that a researcher with this specific range of skills was appointed. Similarly, the acceptance of the TNA recommendation further evidenced change in the Organisation’s culture and approaches to training. Recommendations included:

- An acceptance of Crisis Theory
- An acceptance of the concept of ‘good enough’ practice
- Changes in the language used in policy and Company mission statements, (Novak, 2004a). *(Note: all theses recommendations have since been acted upon: August, 2004, private source)*

These three issues will be discussed in the next chapter; their inclusion here

is because their acceptance signals changed in Organisational training and business continuity policies. This, evidenced the Organisation's perception of staff training and staff welfare away from a technical/rational approach to a more humanistic learning approach.

Conclusion

The object of this chapter was to evidence the three research questions relating to the thesis argument presented in Chapter 1.

The evidence from interviewing participants, the scrutiny of documentation and a review of the Organisation's quantitative data relating to critical incidents collectively support the claim that training for post-critical support would be beneficial for staff. Issues that the participants identified as pertaining to post-critical support training based on incidents in which they had been involved. The examples of participants' involvement in a critical incident were cited to illustrate the different work settings and the corresponding issues that arose from them. The potential disadvantage of citing such examples was that, in attempting to be inclusive, certain issues may have been given a prominence that inflates their importance whilst others, particularly those more difficult to evidence, can present as being relatively inconsequential.

What the results evidenced was participants' belief that there was a role for training in helping people to recover from a critical incident. (*The implications of this for the Organisation will be considered in the next chapter when considering the 'purpose' of training.*) Although there was some dissent as to the nature and shape of this training, there was a marked degree of consensus. This was evidenced by the identification of common areas for inclusion within a training programme, particularly in the area of developing awareness.

Using the data gathered from HR Managers, Training Managers and

participants, the evidence suggested that post-critical incident training required a different approach from other forms of training. This belief centred on the recognition that a 'holistic' approach rather than a 'specific skills' approach was needed. In addition, there was universal demand from participants that any training should be delivered in an 'acceptable' (sensitive) manner. In this way, the suggested approach to training may be regarded as mirroring the sensitive nature of the subject matter itself.

Chapter 5 Discussion

Introduction

As part of the Introduction in Chapter 1 it was suggested that, in exploring workplace post-critical support training post 9/11 three areas of enquiry required consideration as reflected in the research questions. These were:

- i. How does the working environment differ from that prior to 9/11, and what, if any, are the nature of these differences?
- ii. How do participants' experiences of critical incidents inform their understanding of their learning/educational/ training needs?
- iii. *Within an Organisational context:* Why is training perceived as the solution to offering post-critical incident support?

In addressing these three areas, the previous chapter concluded that there was evidence indicating that changes were occurring within Organisational attitudes towards training. Such changes were linked, in part, to the post 9/11 workplace being perceived as increasingly insecure and anxiety-provoking. However accurate a representation of the workplace this was, from a constructionist approach (Kelly, 1955), participants themselves perceived such increased insecurity as real. As demonstrated by their acceptance of the 2004 TNA recommendations, the Organisation recognised the impact that change, both directly and indirectly, may have on training. For example, the acceptance of Golan's (1978) model of 'Crisis Theory', with its premise that critical incidents might provoke inertia, has led to the concept of 'good enough' practice being accepted. In turn, this had produced changes in the language used in policy and emergency procedure literature, (as reported by the HR liaison Manager in July 2004).

In addition, as part of the second research question, the results evidenced a

need for post-critical training but one that required a different focus from that of existing training programmes. In this instance it would be the exploration of trainees' personal awareness, rather than the development of a set of specific skills that would be the focus. All these changes have a bearing on training at both a practical level (as they have to be incorporated into the programme provision, training literature and policy guides), and also at a philosophical level. As noted in the literature review, approaches to HR, particularly in relation to training and development, have to take into account the nature of the human condition (Storey, 1995). The case for training was based participants' experiences of critical incidents and the gaps they identified in existing support provision. Whilst it might be argued that selecting participants who had been involved with a critical incident might favour such an outcome, a number of other factors need to be balanced against this. First, participants were retrospectively expressing what they considered might have been helpful. They reported that they had already recovered from the incident and its aftermath. Therefore, it may be assumed that they had nothing, personally, to gain in evidencing recommendations for training. Secondly, a post-critical incident support system already exists which many participants, to various degrees, had used. Therefore, in considering the merits of training participants were in a position to make comparisons between training and other support services. As such, they were able to identify areas, specifically training, where they considered support to be lacking or weak.

Regarding the first two research questions, assuming the results to be accurate, this leaves the third question to be considered: *'Within an Organisational context: Why is training perceived as the solution to offering post-critical incident support?'* It might be argued that this is the crucial area for discussion, for whilst the identification of training needs and a subsequent training programme are important, they are all an established part of the Organisation's business culture. This third differs from the first two questions as it moves beyond the identifying of evidence to indicate change into questioning the fundamental purpose of training. In particular, the perennial questions for training: 'What are the reasons for offering training?' and 'Whose interest does it serve'?

In discussing these issues, the thesis considers the following areas:

- The rationale for the Organisation to invest in training and the expected rate of return
- Management's need to be seen to manage
- Motivation for staff to engage in post-incident support training
- Educational issues relating to post-critical incident education and training

Rationale for the Organisation to Invest in Training and the Expected Rate of Return

In developing a post-critical support training programme, one of the Organisation's aims was the promotion of staff welfare. This was evidenced by the initial terms of reference for the Training Needs Analysis (Novak, 2004a) and from subsequent interviews with senior managers. Offering training helped demonstrate the Organisation's mission statement to be a 'good employer'. From a staff welfare perspective such aims are laudable. However, without detracting from the Organisation's concern for its staff, it could be suggested that it would be naïve to see it as the only motivating factor, for organisations need to survive (Armstrong, 1999; Evans, Hodkinson, and Unwin, 2002; Evans and Rainbird, 2002) and ultimately it is this need that may be regarded as driving all business strategy. Therefore, post-critical incident training may also represent the Organisation's desire to invest in its social capital. That is, to invest in developing the social cohesion of its workforce in order to safeguard its long-term future.

The proposal of an alternative rationale for post-critical incident training, independent of staff welfare, illustrated the problem of assigning motivation to particular policies or actions. Perceived links are never the simple causal ones that they might initially appear to be (van der Klink and Streumer, 2006). Therefore, in trying to account for the purpose or underlying reason for the

Organisation favouring training as the more appropriate method of offering post-critical incident support, this needs to be placed within a wider Organisational context . Accordingly, what is useful to consider is how such training links to the Organisation's human resources and training and development policy. In particular, from a human capital perspective, what may be their expected returns for investing in training? Although, as part of the process of being a learning organisation, social capital and intellectual and management of knowledge capital are important factors in the planned development of the workforce (Senge, 1990), nevertheless, as reported by HR managers and as identified in the literature (Mincer, 1958; Becker, 1964), it is ultimately the application of human capital theory which governs the Organisation's investment in training.

The Organisation, via its training section, had an explicit policy whereby access to training was governed by the potential returns. This is in keeping with other forms of tangible capital, money, buildings, etc. As described by a HR Training Manager:

"The bottom line for offering training is profitability; we need to grow staff so they can grow the business."

Such views regarding the benefits of training were often anecdotally expressed by HR and Training Managers, particularly during their 2004 Birmingham Training Conference. The difficulty when attempting to analyse this and other similar comments was deciding how accurate a representation of training policy these observations were, or whether they are in fact rhetorical. For example, even when directly asked, HR and Training Managers could give no direct evidence of what benefits there were, other than in very general terms. For example, reference was made to investing in IT training to enable the Organisation to maintain its market share. There was no indication, as Grubb and Ryan (1999) noted in relation to other organisations, as to what exactly was being measured or how it might be measured. This lack of precise measurement of training may be due to two reasons: first, the limited way that returns on training as an investment are defined, in terms of

'profitability' and 'enhancement'; secondly, although the Training Section tended to take a quantitative approach to evaluation, they did not seem to have precise indicators for measuring *profitability and enhancement*. Such indicators do exist, (Baker and Wooden, 1995; Catts, 1996; Grubb and Ryan, 1999). Although, as with the Organisation's evaluation of training, Baker and Wooden (1995) do not regard training evaluation as being centred on the educational/training experience of delegates but, rather, reflective of other corporate interests, such as, achievement of strategy targets, increased productivity, and incorporation of new legislation. The Organisation's evaluation methods appeared to be confusing in that they seemed to try to incorporate qualitative approaches within a quantitative framework. For example, qualitative accounts of employees' personal satisfaction with a training programme tend to be presented in terms of percentages. Individual comments are not quoted or directly utilised. This lack of attention to evaluation is not unique to the case setting (Grubb and Ryan, 1999). As Reid *et al* (2004), note:

'Although it is generally accepted that there is a strong case for attempting to evaluate learning and training, particularly in view of the very large sums of money spent on it, HRD (human resource development) specialists have often been less than enthusiastic about doing it , and the attendant problems often appear too difficult.' (Reid et al, 2004, p.199)

There are other models for assessing the accrued benefits of training. Carnevale and Schulz, (1990) offered wider criteria than profitability. They identified three areas: increased revenue, decreased or avoided expenses and intangible benefits. The latter are particularly relevant to this study and refer to benefits that are difficult to quantify, such as staff motivation. Staff motivation, as witnessed in the many self-improvement mottos displayed around offices, was an important issue for the Organisation. The HR and Training divisions, despite a substantial quantitative database on previous training and course evaluation, hold little qualitative information on how staff training might be enhanced (evidenced from an interview with a Training Manager). The educational experience for staff was not a primary factor. This situation was similar the research findings reported by Billett and Smith

(2003), concerning employers' expenditure on training expenditure in Australia. The implication of marginalising the educational aspect of training is that it might affect staff motivation. Novak (2004b), in his review of benefits for IT companies, noted that highly motivated staff groups did not link training directly with employment benefits. They regarded it as equally developing both themselves and the company, which was the position that the Organisation strove to achieve, in keeping with Pedler, Bugoyne and Boydell (1997).

This lack of precision in evaluating returns on training in general also has particular implications for post-critical incident training. Using Carnevale and Schulz, (1990) criteria, such training would be classed as an intangible benefit which would seem to be in conflict with the Organisation's criteria that the benefits of training be measured in terms of profitability. As previously argued, training for post-critical incident support does not readily lend itself to such quantitative measuring.

Human capital theory (Becker, 1964) has received a number of criticisms, not the least being the limited focus of the concept (Booth, and Snower, 1996). With the rise in corporate social responsibility (CSR) it might be argued that reporting evaluation solely in terms of financial indicators is too restricted a focus (Boud and Garrick, 1999). Although CSR reporting is still voluntary, organisations are increasingly being asked to supply information identifying employees' precise contribution to the organisation and in turn, how the organisation is developing its employees. For example, the Accounting Standards Board (ASB) is requiring their listed companies to produce an Operating and Financial Review (OFR) as part of their annual accounts. Part of this includes an organisation's 'people measures', which is the value an individual employee adds to an organisation. The rationale for this being:

"Employees may be a particularly key resource - and accordingly a key risk - for many entities".

(White, 2005, www.EmployeeBenefits-riskbenefits_files/EmployeeBenefits-ArchiveofArticles_files/Home_files/KnowledgeSection.htm. Accessed February 2007).)

The increased scrutiny of human capital to achieve best returns or competitive advantage is in line with the review of other forms of business capital, such as 'social', 'instructive' and 'knowledge'. Organisations need to assess the degree that their human resources are contributing to this or the development of their main products and services and to consider wider factors other than purely profitability and market share. Although, as Christine Crowther, HR Manager at Selven Group/Teamspirit commented:

"How do you measure the worth of your people? There is no standard. My current instinct is that everybody is playing lip service to human capital reporting but very few people are actually doing it."
(Cited in White, 2005, p4 *ibid*)

For many organisations, measuring the worth of employees involves financial evaluation (Learnativity.com, accessed Nov, 2007). A similar criterion could be discerned within the Organisation, where, according to HR Training Managers, within existing training policy, to create a case which is independent of profitability in order to justify post-critical incident training expenditure would be difficult. For example, although the Organisation's aim for training to be available to all staff (the 'one-size fits all' approach) may be justifiable in terms of developing social capital, the designing and running of a training programme, and the freeing of staff to undertake the training all represent a substantial financial commitment. Given the potential number of participants (approximately six thousand), this has major resource implications for the Organisation and calls into question the 'value for money' principle of the free-market.

During one interview, a manager commented upon the budget implications of offering comprehensive post-critical incident training in comparison with other programmes. Such training required specialist external resources at all stages, from planning to delivery and evaluation. Given the potential number of people taking the training, the logistics of publicising the programme, making staff aware of its availability and access, the training delivery, and then monitoring those who have completed it, would be a formidable

undertaking. Given the resource implications this would involve substantial costs. Although such costs might be comparable with other specialist training programmes, unlike other programmes this particular training was not perceived by HR managers as contributing directly to the Organisation's capital accumulation (including social and knowledge capital).

The decision to invest in post-critical incident training represented a major issue for the Organisation. On the one hand there is the resourcing of a training programme that encompasses its complete workforce and yet on the other hand, the data on incident rates indicated, that only a comparatively small section of the workforce were at risk; mainly branch counter staff. Although, as identified in the literature (Myers, 1994), the potential for a critical incident always exists, the actuality remains low and so it is highly unlikely that the majority of staff will put their training into practice. Therefore, the standard question, 'How far will this training contribute to the profitability of the Organisation?' which is asked when considering training, seems superfluous. As reported by the Head of the Virtual University, such training actually detracts from profitability and therefore may be regarded as a drain on resources. The effect of this is to place the programme outside the Organisation's existing training policy, whereby training was provided on the bases of necessity and profitability. For, as noted, unlike other training, training for post-critical incidents is not directly related to job enhancement or to the development of job skills. Neither, as with health and safety training, can provision be justified on the basis of legal requirements. For these reasons, the inclusion of post-critical incident training in the Organisation's existing training portfolio represents a shift in its HR training and development policy. The instrumentalist/rationalist approach taken by most training has to give way to a holistic view that perceives the employee's training needs in relation to their wider emotional and social needs rather than in terms of particular required skill sets. This is not to suggest that existing training provision does not allow for sensitivity training, there is already such training in areas such as customer liaison and customer services management. The difference is, that the expenditure for such training may be justified by using human capital, social capital or knowledge capital criteria which, as this thesis

has attempted to demonstrate, the use of such criteria are not readily applicable to post-critical incident training.

Management's Need to be Seen to Manage

In the previous section it was noted how the prime requirement of the Organisation is to survive. In accepting this supposition, it would follow that the purpose of offering training goes beyond the needs of the employee. Accordingly, understanding how an individual may respond when involved in a critical incident may enhance the Organisation's chances of survival. This would suggest therefore, that managers need to understand and plan for how their workforce may react within a critical incident. Accordingly, for the thesis, in order to understand how employees may best be supported when in a crisis situation, wider aspects of the purpose of training need to be considered.

A basic function of management is to manage (Armstrong, 1999), this is their *raison d'être*. How this is achieved is dependent upon the myriad of managerial approaches, all of which reflect various philosophies regarding how best to motivate and control employees. An important aspect of management is that it is perceived to be in control, that it is doing its job and managing (Thompson, 2001). Difficulty arises with the onset of a crisis where, as noted in Chapter 2, the stress generated by the uniqueness of the situation does not allow for the utilisation of previous experiences. This can result, and often does, in a failure of managers *to manage* the crisis (Landau, 1997). In order to limit the effects of the resulting diminished managerial control, policies and procedures are produced that reflect management's expectations of their own and other staff groups' behaviour. The assumption that these policies and procedures would be followed, reflects a widely held belief that, managerially, all situations are manageable, including critical incidents (Thompson, 2001).

The Organisation may not be alone in making such assumptions. For example, their own Business Continuity Plans were based on those

suggested by The Financial Services Authority (FSA). In the FSA generic guide, management of an incident is described as: *'...all about applying basic common sense to chaos'* whilst failing to recognise that such incidents are beyond the range of experiences on which 'common sense' is supposedly based.

Within the FSA guide, their *'one size fits all'* approach encompasses:

- An incident that affects the building or infrastructure
- A systemic financial markets crisis
- A project or process disaster
- A personal emergency

The guide states:

'Although this is a general guide, the final section makes specific reference to the teams and plans required to support the FSA'

The identification of the different areas that need to be addressed when planning how best to manage an incident can be beneficial to organisations. For example, the FSA's suggested four-phase cyclical process *ARMR* (Assess, React, Manage, and Recover) is concise, simple to understand and can be adapted to meet differing circumstances. However, there would seem to be serious omissions relating to the feasibility of controlling critical incident situations. Despite the caveat about planning not being able to cover all eventualities:

'Pre-planning is the key to successful incident management. There is little time in an incident to start planning from scratch. However, any pre-determined plans, or just initial thought processes, must be re-assessed in the light of a real incident. Pre-planning gives management a 'head start', but it is impossible to pre-plan for all eventualities. Even the most detailed plans will not cover all possible combinations of circumstances.'(*ibid*)

The warning about 'not covering all circumstances' seems to be at variance with the general tone of the guide. The tone suggests that, provided

organisations follow procedures, as prescribed in the guides, then a successful outcome will ensue. This same sense of managerial confidence, that staff only needed to follow procedures, was reflected in the Organisation's documentation. In essence it is a confidence based on instrumental rationality which:

'...represents the preoccupation with means in preference to ends. It is concerned with method and efficiency rather than with purposes ... It is the divorce of fact from value, and the preference, in that divorce, for fact.'
(Gibson, 1986, p.7, cited in Hodkinson, p.1998)

This same belief in instrumental rationality was seen in the Organisation's approach to training, where, by implication, an employee only had to be given a training programme, to ensure that learning would follow. Such an instrumental rational approach would seem to be in conflict with a human capital approach as it seems to be 'task' rather than 'person' focused (Collins, 1991). The allure of instrumental rationalism would seem to be endemic to the culture of the Organisation. It can be seen in the language Organisational documentation and literature (including training). Collins (1991) described many of the features of contemporary training programmes that are common to many educational institutions and workplace programmes. For example, training is presented in terms of explicit statements regarding the aims and objectives, the competencies to be demonstrated and also the criteria for assessing competency. All these have their antecedents within behavioural and cognitive psychology which, in turn, inform an instrumentalist/rationalist approach to training (Collins, 1991). Together, they sit with the assumption by management that workplace procedures are always followed.

The same belief in employee compliance applied to emergency and training literature. Although participants thought such guides were useful, providing information and acting as a focus during times of stress, it was not clear how much they were read or consulted. Participants were not able to give specific examples for the ways in which the literature had been useful for dealing with post-incident situations. In part, the reported usefulness might be reflecting Weick's work, (1995, pp. 54-56), regarding sense-making whereby, having a

guide, even an inaccurate one, is better than none at all. The presence of the guide itself, rather than its contents, becomes the basis for decision-making and stimulates action.

Unfortunately, 'good house-keeping habits', such as reading emergency procedures, emails, etc., are not always adhered to by staff. It would appear that the Organisation functions on the belief that, if an order is issued, then it will be obeyed. Whilst this might seem a reasonable assumption to make, and no doubt generally happens, unfortunately, within emergency situations such assumptions cannot be made (Gilgun, 1996a, 1996b). Individual reactions might vary from being decisive and in charge of the situation to being in a frozen catatonic state. Neither can it be assumed that, because a person might react well in one situation, they will do so in another.

Contrary to the findings in the literature relating to trauma and the management of disaster, Organisational procedure guides and existing training manuals exclude the possibility of negative psychological effects, such as stress and trauma, affecting a person's decision-making. The implications for the Organisation, are that, in accepting the findings from the disaster literature, it also has to accept the reality of managerial uncertainty, and to foster ideas that are alien to the Organisation's management culture (evidenced by an HR Manager). Accordingly, whilst it might be argued that all critical incidents can be managed (Thompson, 2001) some may not be managed in the way that the Organisations initially envisaged. For example, within a critical incident it is questionable who exactly will be available to manage and, given the potential effects of trauma, how effective such management may be.

Motivation for Staff to Engage in Post-Incident Support Training

A constant theme of management studies is how best to motivate staff (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005; Beardwell and Claydon, 2007). The literature on motivation demonstrates the complexity of the concept. It is not

the intention here to rehearse all the main points of motivation theories (for a detailed overview of this see Armstrong, 1999, p.107-127). For the purposes of the thesis, it is useful to note that motivation can be a two-way process in that a person can be motivated towards or away from a goal (demotivated). Similarly, a person might be motivated by a number of factors. Otto and Glaser (1970) suggested a useful classification of motivational factors based on the kind of rewards that are involved in learning:

- Achievement motivation for which the reward is a success
- Anxiety, for which the reward is avoidance of failure
- Approval motivation, for which the reward is approval in its many forms
- Curiosity, for which the reward is to explore the environment and be exposed to more stimuli
- Acquisitiveness, for which the reward is something tangible, such as money or material benefits.

(Adapted from Otto and Glaser, 1970)

These motivators are not mutually exclusive and a person can be multi-motivated by a number of factors. The benefit of the classification is that it demonstrates the range of factors that individually or collectively might motivate a person.

Within a human capital approach, the potential returns for investing in education and training is regarded as being a dominant motivating factor.

'Human capital theory provides a theory of the demand for education. This approach sets out a standard investment problem in which individuals acquire education until the expected returns from an additional year equal the expected costs, that is, investment in training depends upon the benefits from higher lifetime earnings arising from increased skill levels.' (Burdett and Smith, 1996, p. 65)

Herzberg *et al* (1957) and Billett, (2004b), have shown that money is not the sole motivation for working; for example, fixed salaried employees are still motivated without the prospect of additional monetary incentives. As Herzberg (1957) suggested other 'hygienic' factors, such as improved working

conditions, can act as motivators. Nevertheless as Armstrong (1999) notes:

'... money provides the means to achieve a number of different ends. It is a powerful force because it is linked directly or indirectly to the satisfaction of many needs'. (Armstrong, 1999, p. 123)

Woodruffe (2006, p. 29) identified twelve non-financial factors that motivate employees ranging from personal advancement, to trust in the reliability of the organisation. The evidence suggested that participants were motivated by factors other than money. Within the thesis, this was illustrated by their concern for their own and colleagues' safety and well being and may be regarded as building social capital (Falk, 2006). The value participants placed on the interpersonal and social relationships that they had with other colleagues appeared to be a significant factor (Billett, 2004b) in their support for post-critical support training. As noted in the results chapter, all participants were supportive of training and could perceive its benefits, if not directly for them, then for their colleagues (Portes, 1998). Apart from illustrating the link between social capital and training, i.e., the construction of networks and trust (Putnam, 1998), this also supports Billett and Boud's (2001) findings that employees will seek meaning and purpose in their work, independent of status or pay.

A further area that brings into question the relationship between human capital theory, social capital and individual motivation is seen in the Organisation's commitment to a 'one-size fits all' policy. The evidence suggested that the aims of this type of policy were not congruent with those of the participants. For participants, interpersonal relationships seemed to be a significant factor (Lave, 1991). The evidence indicated that participants were not just concerned that a generic training solution should be able satisfy the demands for training but that it should also meet the needs of particular staff. This arose from evidence that certain staff groups have specific needs. A difficulty when critiquing this policy was that, from the analysis of data, it was not clear whether the actual commitment made in the policy was being too optimistic in its scope or whether it was a case of human resources being:

'...gender blind, issuing prescriptive and descriptive statements concerning a seemingly homogenous workforce, irrespective of issues of class, race or gender'.

(Townley, 1994, .p15, cited in Somerville, 2006, p.49).

In addition to the individual training needs of employees, there is also an issue of how the specialist roles that certain staff members have may be adequately served by such a policy. Whilst a core-training programme may be suited and given to all staff, additional training would seem to be required for specifically designated staff, for example; Business Continuity Managers or those having responsibilities under the Business Continuity Policy.

From a human capital perspective, the issue of specific rather than general training may present further difficulties for the Organisation. As noted, human capital theory has a strong presence within training policy (evidenced by an HR Manager). It is particularly problematic in relation to the distinction made between 'general' and 'specific' training skills whereby the costs, based on expected returns, of the former should accrue to the individual (the employee), whilst the latter are the responsibility of the employer (Becker, 1964). Accepting that such a distinction between 'general' and 'specific' training can be made, which itself has been contested (Stevens, 1996), the distinction becomes superfluous as potential rewards, from a purely human capital approach, are not readily apparent. Particularly for employees, it is not clear why they would wish to invest time in training.

Therefore, with regards to motivating staff, from a human capital perspective, post-critical support training would not seem to be a particularly good investment for employees. It does not enhance a specific work-related skill or knowledge that would make an employee either personally or collectively, via their interactions, more productive. Nor does it enable an employee to use capital equipment more productively, which would be the expectation of investing in human capital (Booth and Snower, 1996). Similarly, as a transferable skill, it is not going to make the person more employable. Companies do not employ staff because of their unproven ability to cope with a terrorist attack or other such incidents. It would appear therefore, that the

motivation to undertake post-critical support training does not fit readily into Otto and Glaser's (1970) classification. There is no direct tangible employment-based reward that would motivate staff to engage with the training. In addition, given the nature of the subject matter, it could be suggested that many delegates would potentially find the subject matter distressing and therefore, would be reluctant to engage in training. Indeed, post-critical incident support training might actually be a potential demotivator.

The literature relating to loss and bereavement and the associated trauma evidences the reluctance of people to engage with the subject matter, (Parkers, 1972; Marris, 1974). Therefore, to help motivate staff to undertake the training, a sense of purpose other than immediate work compliance would seem to be required; for example, a general awareness campaign, such as recognising the anniversary of a British-based terrorist attack. Such institutionalised recognition not only gives employees permission to reflect on their loss (Pollock, 1972) but may also stimulate interest and make the subject appear relevant to day-to-day working life, (Myers, 1994).

Although participants supported the idea of training, it is worth recalling that a large majority had direct experience of a critical incident. Therefore, it might reasonably be expected that as a group they perceived, more acutely, the relevance and benefit of such training. Such experiences may be usefully harnessed to help develop a greater consensus within the workforce for such training (Lave, 1996) as reflected within a social capital model (Portes, 1998). In addition, the results strongly indicated that, in the event of an employee dying as a result of a critical incident, colleagues would appreciate the opportunity to talk and give fuller details of the event to the person's relatives, and other friends.

The literature identified the therapeutic benefits of this both for those directly involved and those who were indirectly affected (Hodgekinson and Stewart, 1991; Kennedy and Charles, 2001; Coleman *et al*, 2003). All participants cited this as the scenario they most dreaded. Although the initial giving of such

news would be undertaken by the police or a specialist worker, nevertheless, participants all indicated that they also would want to make contact. What this seemed to reflect was the importance workers placed on their interpersonal relationships with colleagues. For many participants, although based in the work setting, such relationships transcended the workplace. In this way, such relationships may be regarded as the junction where a person's personal and work life meet (Stevenson, 2000; Colley *et al*, 2003). In meeting this need, to facilitate communication and help people deal with such a situation, training will not be directly job-skills enhancing. Therefore, offering such training only makes sense when set against the wider workplace culture of fostering co-operation group in order to ensure its own survival (Lave, 1991; Engestrom *et al*, 1996) which the Organisation continually attempted to promote.

Educational Issues related to Post-Critical Incident Education and Training

Consideration of the purpose of training has particular relevance when set against the educational models to be used in the development of training programmes and the role of the trainer. Earlier in the thesis, it was noted how important it was for the Organisation to view itself as a learning organisation (Wick and Lean, 1995). This was linked to both its Human Resources management and training and development strategies, Chapter 2. As suggested, the adoption of a human capital approach offered an explanation as to why business development was regarded as being dependent upon staff development, which in turn promoted the use of training needs analyses and the training sectors. The difficulty for the Organisation is that such an approach is not consistent with other parts of its business strategy.

It is perhaps in their planning for critical incident training that the tension between the desires of the Organisation to work within a human capital, 'post-Fordism' framework, whilst maintaining an instrumentalist/rationalist approach to training, was seen most clearly. As Schon noted, (1983) an instrumentalist/rationalist approach no longer seems appropriate as it does not meet the

needs of contemporary working practice. Such sentiments, as argued here, may well be applied to post-critical support training. This is evidenced in the results; the uncertainty of contemporary working life made it increasingly important for staff to work beyond the boundaries of their daily routines. They need to be able to respond to the unpredictable and have the confidence to work with the unknown. For training to be effective, adult training models have to equip staff to deal with the uncertainties of their working environment. By their very nature, critical incidents are the extreme examples of such uncertainties.

Therefore, it could be suggested that training to support staff in dealing with the aftermath of a critical incident needs to be flexible enough to enable a large number of people, with widely differing emotional needs, to engage with the programme. For this reason, self-directedness in learning may be considered as an appropriate approach for some employees and one that links with the traditions of humanistic adult education (Tennant, 1997, pp. 7-10) and also within a 'soft' approach to Human Resources. Despite Collins' (1991) reservations of this approach, Boud (1988) stressed that such learning is more than acting on one's own:

'...it implies a responsiveness to one's environment and the ability to make unique and creative responses to situations as they arise rather than patterned or stereotypical responses from one's past.' (Boud, 1988, p.18)

Self-directed learning may also enabled delegates to be empowered by their personal experiences and to take control of their own learning. However, the potential disadvantage of taking such an approach is that, as the subject matter can itself be emotionally challenging, learners might not readily perceive their need for additional support.

Personal experience has a crucial role in developing self-awareness. As reported, participants in the study were able to cite a wide range of personal experiences stemming from their involvement in critical incidents. Such personal experiences are central to adult learning theory (Jarvis, 2004).

Therefore, in designing a training solution, the programme had to encapsulate the strengths and experiences of delegates in order to approximate and develop awareness of the fuller effects of critical incidents. This becomes particularly relevant if Knowles' (1980) assertion is accepted that learning is more effective when adults perceive it as relevant to their needs. In addition, as noted by participants, the experience of a critical incident can leave a person feeling powerless and 'victimised'. Increased control over the learning process and outcomes increases the motivation to learn (Knowles, 1980; Kolb, 1984).

The use of personal experience is particularly appropriate for post-critical incident support training as it offers delegates the opportunity for self-reflection (Schon, 1983, 1987). As noted earlier in Chapter 3, the link between the stress of 'normal' everyday living and a traumatic incident is one of degree (Parry, 1990). Whilst not everyone has suffered a traumatic incident, everyone has had experiences of stress either themselves directly or in others. The use of 'self' in this way is a valuable potential learning resource and holds an established position within a number of academic areas including: feminist research (Culley and Portuges, 1985; Belenky et al., 1986) and social work (Preston-Shoot, 1992). The use of prior experiences may enable participants to develop a greater awareness of concepts that would be difficult to approximate in a constructed training exercise. Boud (1992), regarded that the use of 'self' in this way superseded the influences of an artificially created exercise. Used as part of a training programme, it has the potential to help delegates best understand key concepts, such as the effects of trauma.

The use of prior experience is also holistic in that both internal as well as external factors are recognised as acting in concert. For example, if attacked a person's internal world, the experienced anxiety, and their external world, the physical attack, come together. It is the sum of these internal and external factors, each of which combined are experienced by a person in a unique way, which influence and shape the learning (Boud, 1988). Evidencing the importance of this, Brookfield (1986) in his review of the major influential adult-learning theories, in the latter half of the twentieth century, identified the

combined presence of external and internal factors as a common denominator in all major theories. This has particular significance for critical incident training as it mirrors the uniqueness of a learner's own experiences of the critical incidents (as seen in the results, participants first described a critical incident from the perspective of their own immediate work setting). Consideration of these internal and external factors allows for meaning to arise from within the context of the learner's own experiences. In this way, the use of prior experience as a learning resource enables the learner to construct or attach his or her own meaning to an event which creates the possibility for the event to be reframed as a learning experience. For the learner, there is the possibility for learning to take place and knowledge to be created through what Kolb calls the '*transformation of experiences*' (Kolb, 1984, p.41).

The use of self-experience is not only beneficial to training participants. The use of 'self' may also be an important teaching resource. As described by bell hook, the use of self can act:

'...to serve as a catalyst that calls everyone to become more and more engaged, to become active participants in learning'. (hook, 1994, p. 11)

In accepting this use of 'self', it might be argued that it increases the trainers responsibilities for training participants. In the design and delivery of training, trainers need to ensure that programmes are structured in a way that does not leave delegates feeling over-exposed. It is not possible for either trainer or delegates to control the aspects of their experiences on which delegates might call. Therefore, clear boundaries are required as to which delivery methods are to be used. In addition, the programme should recognise that some delegates might require further support. Similarly, programme planning needs to account for delegates being unable to engage fully with the training material; to recognise that this might not be indicative of poor motivation but part of their defence against anxiety. For this reason, the standard practice should be for delegates to continue only if they feel comfortable with essential elements of the programme design. As Stone notes:

'Learning theory and knowledge of the conditions which promote adult learning suggest that an emotional atmosphere is not conducive to learning. People in a condition of heightened feelings are not generally placed to acquire new knowledge or to retain anything they have learned'. (Stone, 1990. p. 69)

As indicated by this quote, there are disadvantages to using personal experiences. First, the experiences that are used by delegates might generate too much anxiety for them to reflect and learn from it (Inskipp, 1996). Secondly, there are the limitations governing all experiences (Knowles, 1980). In accepting the validity of delegates' experiences, it also has to be accepted that delegates are limited by the very context in which they live their lives. Aspects of gender, class, history, culture, and geographical location all contribute to this. For example, participants within the offshore islands commented upon the sense of community that differed from the mainland and with it, the different ways in which things were perceived and experienced. Therefore, in recognising the natural limitations of personal experience, training programmes have to include a knowledge base, which can broaden individual experiences. For example, within post-critical incident support training this would include the effects of trauma. Thirdly, as delegates bring with them their experiences, they also bring their expectations. Given this subject matter and the experiential aspect of the training, any training programme should be based upon educational aims. Training cannot be a substitute therapy course for delegates, that is, an alternative to the counselling or other emotional supports that the Organisation offers. As hook noted when reflecting on her own teaching and students' expectations:

'They do want an education that is healing to the uninformed unknowing spirit. They do want knowledge that is meaningful. They rightfully expect that my colleagues and I will not offer them information without addressing the connection between what they are learning and their overall life experiences' (hook, 1994, p.19)

Therefore, post-critical incident support training needs to incorporate sensitive, personal awareness, and a firm knowledge base which may be best suited to a humanistic education model. The value of such an approach, as

identified by Gage and Berliner (1991), is that it has the potential to satisfy so many aspect of the human condition by aiming to:

- Promote positive self-direction and independence
- Develop the ability to take responsibility for what is learned
- Develop creativity
- Foster curiosity (exploratory behaviour, a function of imbalance or dissonance in any of the systems)
- Promote an interest in the arts (primarily to develop the affective/emotional system).

All of these values would be congruent with the aims of a post-critical incident support training programme. In addition, they would reflect many of the values of a 'soft' approach to Human Relations (Guest, 1989). In doing so it illustrates Senge's view of learning within a learning organisation whereby *'through learning we extend our capacity to relate, to be part of the generative process of life.'* (Senge, 1990. P14)

Conclusion

The starting point of this discussion chapter was that the assumption that the first two of the three areas of enquiry had been demonstrated. Therefore, the main focus here has been the 'purpose' for offering post-critical incident support training and to argue for a humanistic learning approach to such training. In doing so, the study has considered the rationale for post-critical incident training from a number of stakeholder perspectives.

Whatever the educational approach taken, it seems apparent that, within the Organisation, training was the dominant hegemony for identifying areas of business weakness and problem-solving. As illustrated, developing training that will provide a solution for preparing staff to deal with post-critical incidents was in keeping with the Organisation's existing Human Resource management strategy for business growth and survival. Although promoting staff welfare served as the rationale for offering post-critical support this needs to be viewed in the context of business continuity. This was congruent

with the Organisation's business culture which saw their core business interests in terms of growth and survival that reflected models of both human capital and social capital.

Within a capitalist market, threats to business can come in many forms (Legge, 2005). New regulations or legislation, such as those required by the Finance Service Authority, can place increased demands on an organisation which would affect its competitiveness and therefore trigger a response to incorporate them into the existing business. A new product or service offered by competitors demands a response and appropriate action. Generally dealing with such events may be regarded as part of the day-to-day business activity. Most demands have a lead-in period, which allows time for the Organisation to make a considered response.

Responding to such business situations are core managerial functions that ensure the survival of the any organisation (Armstrong, 1999). The success or failure of any response is the difference between its continuing and its demise. Critical incidents, as the experience of 9/11 demonstrated, are outside day-to-day business activities. They are unpredictable as regards both their occurrence and effects (Trimble, 1985; Herman, 1992) This means, that other than in the broadest of terms, it is impossible to obtain any accurate assessment of risk. Although focusing on personal risk, Parton encapsulates the uncertainty in attempting to assess potential risk when commenting:

'....risk assessment suggests precision, and even quantification, by its nature is imperfect. Given the mobile character of the social world and the mutable and frequently controversial nature of abstract systems of knowledge, most forms of risk assessment contain numerous imponderables'. (Parton, 1994, p.105)

Within a critical incident context, as illustrated, the situation is different. For example, an assessment of a fire risk allows for fire-marshals to be trained to carryout specific procedures, for example, the evacuation of a building. A fire in an office waste-bin might be severe enough to warrant an evacuation of the building. This would be in line with taught training procedures. If, rather than a

waste-bin fire, an oil tanker were to crash into the office engulfing all main exit routes in fire, as occurred in a call-centre, then the training is no longer of benefit. The learnt procedures are outside the realms of assessed possibilities. Once the situation goes from the 'known' (assessed) into the 'unknown', as in a critical incident situation, then the learnt responses are of little or no use.

As illustrated earlier, part of the difference between offering training in this area and other training, lies within the subject matter itself in that it is centred on the 'personal'. As noted by one of the counselling service participants, there seems to be a reluctance within Human Resources to engage with critical incident or related training that involves considering the emotional aspects of the delegates. Such reluctance may be reflecting the defence mechanisms of trainers as an attempt to protect against their own anxieties (Garland, 1998) that the subject matter creates. There may also be concerns that post-critical incident support training might make the possibility of a critical incident occurring seem 'too real' and hence increase, rather than help to contain, anxiety.

The difficulty for workplace trainers, as the thesis has attempted to demonstrate, is that many of the concepts and skills required in post-critical incident training do not readily lend themselves to a simple, skill/knowledge/values (attitudes) divide favoured by a competence or instrumentalist/rationalist approach (Collins, 1991; Tennant, 1999,). Moreover, the incorporation of trauma and similar emotion-based concepts in a training programme does not guarantee that they will be automatically translated into practice. If post-critical incident training is to be of any value then, as illustrated in the literature and the evidence from participants, there is a need for the development of self-awareness to be a central component. It is for this reason that the thesis has argued for critical incident training to be holistic rather than skills-specific, which it is suggested, is best served by a humanistic educational approach.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

Introduction

The theme of this paper is workplace training, specifically training for post-critical incident support. In concluding the argument this chapter aims to summarise some of the main points made in the paper, and to consider some of the issues relating to post-critical support training, including some speculation regarding suggestions for a training solution. In addition, it considers the limitations of the research process regarding the appropriateness of the methods used to gather data, the validity of the findings and the need for sensitivity when conducting interviews. The thesis then addresses issues of professional relevance, as identified in Chapter 1.

Summary of the Thesis Argument

Within vocational educational and training the needs of employers and their commitment to employee training are not homogeneous, (Ball 1999; Green and Lucas, 1999). Both the literature review and the study's findings demonstrate that the Organisation tended to see their business training needs in terms of rational/problem-solving skills (Collins, 1991; Bee and Bee, 2003). Further, there seems to be a belief that most, if not all, situations can be managed or planned for, which is based on an instrumentalist/rationalist approach to management (Thompson, 2001).

Accordingly, as considered in the literature review, following the learning approach taken, much workplace training is presented in psychological cognitive behaviourist terms (Collins, 1991). There is an emphasis on identifying specific learning outcomes and developing staged or module programmes to meet them (Critten, 1993). Participants are assessed to see how far they have achieved the necessary training goal, which was the model used in the case-study setting. The dominant hegemony, that different psychological approaches to workplace training holds, limits the recognition

that sociological literature has had on understanding the workplace as a place of learning (Casey, 1995). This is not to suggest that within the Organisation, HR did not consider the importance of social networks, (Lave, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Lave, 1996; Engestrom *et al*, 1996) and the importance of informal workplace learning (Hager, 1998). However as illustrated, the existing psychological and sociological approach to learning taken within the Organisation seems to limit the potential for individuals to develop other aspects of themselves or their own self-perceived learning needs.

Within existing HR training policy there would seem to be a contradiction between the psychological and sociological approach to learning, that much training takes, and a 'soft' human resources approach which, as reported by HR managers, was the HR approach favoured by the Organisation. Within a 'soft' approach to HR, employees are regarded as a major capital asset and as such, the aim is to develop the individual in order to increase the Organisation's human capital and social capital (Beardwell and Claydon, 2007). The aim of such an approach is to produce a flexible, creative, self-motivating workforce that can act in concert for the benefit of the Organisation (*ibid*). Unfortunately, no matter how flexible a workforce may be, events such as 9/11, and the June 2005 terrorist attack on the London Underground, demonstrated the impossibility for businesses to plan for all eventualities (Legge, 2005). This is particularly the case with critical incidents. Whilst the overall business training objective might remain the same, which is to ensure that the Organisation survives and flourishes (Armstrong, 1999), the demands created by critical incidents suggest that a different learning approach to training from that of existing ones is required.

In relation to post-critical incident support training, the analysis of the data suggested that employees require training that goes beyond procedural and policy responses. Based on the results, it is suggested that training can be an important component for helping staff to deal with critical incidents. This applies both to those who are directly involved as victims and those who manage the post-incident situation and offer support. This kind of training has to address the lack of certainty that people exposed to traumatic situations

experience. The analysis of the data suggested that such an approach should include supporting people so that they may become more aware of their own emotional needs and that of others. In effect, the training needs to be for the '*unknown*' or '*non-specific*'. As noted earlier in the study, events such as 9/11 may appear to be irrational and unpredictable. Indeed, it was only the immediate response of governments and financial institutions acting in concert that averted global economic recession (Sattler, 2003). Whilst the call by the FSA for the development of business continuity strategies might be a rational response to an irrational situation, nevertheless, any associated training has to address the irrationality and the insecurity that critical incidents create. The concern of this thesis was how best post-critical incident support may be translated into training.

As argued in the previous chapter, the implication for HR in its development and training policy is that, in offering post-critical incident training, it has to take into consideration staff needs that are independent of those of the Organisation. In doing so, it brings into question the limitations of the existing psychological and sociological approaches to learning as reflected in the Organisations instrumentalist/rationalist approach to training. It is because of these limitations that the thesis has supported a humanistic learning approach to post-critical incident training. Such an approach, as argued, best meets the requirements of post-critical support training.

Research Methods and Limitations of the Study

Before considering how the study contributes to professional relevance it is useful to reflect on some of the limitations of the research process. Ultimately, all research approaches have their limitations which affect the claims they make to knowledge (Cohen and Manion, 1989; Gilbert, 1993). In this instance, a case-study to gather data seemed to offer the best approach to exploring the phenomenon of critical incidents. Certainly, for practical and ethical reasons, an experimental approach would not be a consideration. The advantage of taking a qualitative approach, when interviewing participants,

was that it had the potential to encapsulate their experiences (Silverman, 2000). However, a qualitative approach also has its limitations and does not necessarily guarantee validity, as Miles and Huberman (1984) noted:

'Qualitative analyses can be evocative, illuminating, masterful – and wrong.' (Miles and Huberman, 1984: 284)

Therefore, the knowledge that the study sought to identify makes no claim to absolute certainty. For example, in considering the increased insecurity of the workplace, evidence was based on the subjective experiences of participants and not on quantitative statistical data of incident rates. In this way, a qualitative approach might be regarded as mirroring the uncertainty produced by critical incidents. History is littered with accounts of disasters and catastrophes (Newburn, 1993). Terrorist attacks, such as 9/11, demonstrate the potential for critical incidents to occur, which helps to create a perception of increased risk and the eroding of workplace security.

However, this sense of uncertainty is not merely confined to the workplace but may be considered as part of postmodern contemporary life. Therefore, in relation to the study, 'uncertainty' may be considered as part of the research process and extending to the very knowledge it produced. As Bauman (1992) commented:

'we the residents of the postmodern habitat, live in a territory that admits no clear options and strategies that can even be imagined to be uncontroversially correct.' (Bauman, 1992: 185)

In response to this, the thesis has attempted throughout to be transparent by identifying the assumptions and illustrating the research process upon which its claim for knowledge rests. In this way, it follows Silverman's criteria for evaluating qualitative research that: *'our data, methods and findings satisfy the criteria of reliability and validity'* (Silverman, 2000, p. 283). As part of this transparency, it is also beholden on the researcher to acknowledge the limitations of the study. This is to aid academic scrutiny of the thesis, which forms an integral part of the claim for the validation of the results. Three examples are given that illustrate aspects of the research. These are:

- Recording

- Interviewing in a sensitive manner.
- Use of interviews
- Generalising the results to other setting.

All these points illustrate aspects of the research approach taken and, in so doing, aid the transparency of the study.

Recording

In Chapter 3 the initial preference for tape-recording all interviews in order to produce transcripts, was considered. This, it was thought, would have offered a 'truer' representation of the interviews. The rationale for this included the possibility of data being available for scrutiny and, by extension, aiding the validation of the results. Since engaging with the study, this initial certainty that a particular recording method would automatically help validate results, is not held. This is not to dispute the use of taping interviews as an excellent *aide memoire*, but merely a comment on the etiological assumptions regarding the nature of the *reality* and *truth* that participants' accounts are deemed to reflect. In questioning of the role of taped interviews as representations of reality, it also has to be considered whether the 'reality' of participants' experiences can be fully encapsulated and explained.

The recording of data, whether by tape-recording, written notes, video, or any other method, does not make the findings any 'truer'. These are merely the vehicle used to reflect and make sense of the interview and the information given. All can make a contribution to the analysis of data but no one method of recording or combination of methods can fully encompass what took place during the interview. 'Meaning making' in the study drew upon different types of information. Some of this information was from the direct quotes recorded during interview, others were from non-verbal communication; the gestures, facial expressions, and use of silence which participants used to convey meaning. For example, the way in which one participant stood-up, walked around the room and looked out of the window as he started to answer a

question about an incident resulting in a particularly nasty accident. His actions and non-verbal nuances helped convey a meaning that was very different from the words spoken. It gave the opportunity to reply to his comment about the incident being '*a very unfortunate affair*' with a comment that '*it still seems to be very painful for you*'. This enabled him to express in detail just how bad the event and aftermath had been for him and the difficulty of having to continue in his day-to-day work.

When analysing such data, different levels of meaning have to be extrapolated and reflected upon (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000). It is not just the notes and quotations taken during the interview that need consideration but also the feelings that they evoked in the interviewer, at the time, and later when reflecting on the interview. For example, during the data-analysis process, when reflecting upon comments such as '*a very unfortunate affair*' there was a need to consider the meaning of the words beyond their literal meaning. The participant's sense of pain for himself and for what he felt for the injured person was a real experience that had continued to affect him. The need to consider the meaning of words and expressions used by participants and, to reflect on what they might be trying to express, was central to the analysis (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000). It was through such reflections that the analysis of the data was deemed to support the validity to the study. In this instance, claims for validity rest on theories relating to a person's reaction to traumatic events, and the experience of working with people who have suffered trauma (Kennedy and Charles, 2001). Ultimately, it could be argued that it is the integrity of the researcher and their ability to build trust between the reader and themselves that validates the study. As Holland and Ramazanoglu note:

'.....there is no technique of analysis or methodological logic that can neutralize the social nature of interpretation. We cannot read meaning in interview texts, allowing, them to propose their own meanings, without also reading meaning into them, as we make sense of their meanings.' (Holland and Ramazanoglu, 1994, p133)

Their comments, although directed at feminist researchers, are applicable to

other areas of qualitative research. The researcher's choice of research methods and the transparency of the research process all contributed to the building-up of this trust. In part, claims for the validity of the research may be said to mirror the relationship between the participants and the researcher. Indeed, it may be regarded as the continuum between the participant and reader with the researcher acting as the conduit.

Interviewing in a Sensitive Manner

If the reader cannot get a sense of openness and the relationship between the participant and researcher, it becomes difficult to engage with the study and assess its validity (Gilbert, 1993). As described in various sections of the thesis, the identification of aspects of the research process, for example, the initial contacting of participants and the agreement to use notation to record data, all contributed to the validation of the study. Collectively, they demonstrate the stages of the research process and help the reader to assess whether it was consistent with the type of 'knowledge' it attempted to produce. This is an important consideration for, when claiming validity for the results (Yin, 2003) it is ultimately the reader's decision whether to accept or reject them (Silverman, 2000). The researcher can give no guarantee that the data analysis is correct (Holland and Ramzanoglu, 2000, p 145).

Returning to the former example regarding interviewing, the response evoked illustrated the interpersonal dynamic between the researcher and participant. To say that the researcher's reaction to his reply was correct would imply that there is a 'right' and a 'wrong' response. It would be making a judgement that is inappropriate as it does little to convey the essence of the research relationship. What might be more useful is the recognition that different responses will yield different results (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000). Within the narrative, these open up the possibility for other accounts, all of which allow for different interpretations. Although the enabling of participants to tell their stories illustrates the interdependency of the relationship between researcher and participant, it also highlights the imbalance of power that can

exist in favour of the researcher. It places the interviewer in a powerful position to direct the interview (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). This raises the ethical issue of the need to protect participants from being exploited by revealing too much information about themselves.

'I have also emerged from interviews with the feeling that my interviewees need to know how to protect themselves from people like me' (Finch, 1984, p. 80, cited in Holland and Ramazanoglu, 1994)

The quote also brings into question how participants may perceive and use the interview.

Use of Interview

Although there was an agreed focus to the interview, provided by an interview guide with prompt, each felt, and was, very different. Such differences centred first, on content and secondly, on the way in which participants used the interview. Regarding content, in keeping with a narrative approach (Carter, 1993), whilst some participants recalled similar incidents, they differed in what they chose to include in the event. For example, as cited in Chapter 4, for some participants the emphasis was on the reactions of their wider social and family network, while others focused on the effects the incident had on their work, colleagues, and the workplace in general.

The second main difference was in the way participants told their 'stories', and how they used them to make sense of what they had experienced. Whilst there was no one particular dominant explanation to account for the occurrence of a particular incident, participants all tried to offer an explanation of why it had happened. There was a sense of participants wishing to make sense of their experiences as though trying to retrieve something positive from it. In enabling participants to do this, a balance was needed between responding sensitively to what was being expressed whilst trying to maintain the focus of the interview (Holloway and Jefferson, 2000). This was not easy to achieve. During one interview, the questioning was adjourned so that the participant could take a break as she had become very tearful and needed a

short space to calm down and become less agitated. On another occasion a male participant needed to go into great detail about the failure of an alarm system. As with some of the other participants, there was a feeling that both were using the interviews as a catharsis. They needed the time and space to do so. Whilst this might require additional resources, (such as increased time to conduct interviews), it is justifiable in terms of the data collection. Such participants were able to make a significant contribution but might need additional support to do so (Dryden and Thorne, 1991). These examples serve to illustrate aspects of the interviewing process and, by extension, to demonstrate the transparency of the research process and help to support claims for the validity and reliability of the study.

Generalising the Results to Other Setting

As part of the process of reflection, it is perhaps inevitable that the researcher considers what in the research process they may have done differently, or what may have produced a better study. As noted, overall, the research approach and the design seemed to have produced useful data. This said, it could be argued that the criteria used to select the initial twenty-two participants were conducive to selecting a group that would favour a training solution. Although there was a need to engage participants who would be able to make a contribution to the study, their very knowledge and experiences might have biased outcomes. A more inclusive group of participants, i.e., including employees who had not had such an experience may have given rise to different data, although it might be argued that this would also have been a different study.

Whilst it is reasonable to consider such issues, on balance, my initial thinking regarding data-gathering stands. That is, the identifying of participants, the interviewing of participants and the scrutiny of documentation produced interesting and valid data about the subject matter. Further, the analysis of this data evidenced a need for training, but training that required a different approach from that usually pursued by the Organisation. In accepting this and presenting the results, the thesis does not claim to be the definitive statement

of truth with regard to post-critical incident training needs. For this reason, whilst making no claim for generalising the results beyond that of the case-study setting, it is useful to consider this issue.

Whilst the debate about philosophical issues cannot be adequately dealt with within the word limits of the thesis, the claims for any knowledge produced does effect the validity of the findings. As such, the production of knowledge, and its link to the scientific benefits of case studies, needs to be considered. Berg (2007) advises that two issues need to be addressed:

First, the degree to which the decisions within the study can be considered objective.

Secondly, whether the case-study enables:

*'information that can be seen as useful beyond the individual case',
(that is), ... can findings be generalized?' (Berg, 2007, p. 294).*

In addressing these issues, Berg (2007) suggested that objectivity was not a matter of judging whether or not research-related decisions are subjective, but

*'...rests on the ability of an investigator to articulate what the
procedures are so that others can repeat the research if they so
choose'. (Berg, 2007, p. 295).*

It could be suggested that this report might itself be regarded as a response to Berg's (2007) comment. In particular, in identifying areas that might be regarded as being 'unique' or relating to the 'zeitgeist' of contemporary financial organisations it also illustrates some of the barriers to reproduction of the study. For example; management support, and access to sites and participants might not be readily available if the study were to be replicated. What might be of potential benefit to future researchers are the approach taken and the attention given to interviewing participants. Such issues are important considerations when attempting to generalise the findings to other sites.

The debate regarding the generalisation of case-study findings has been a major theme within the research methods literature. Hammersley (1992)

stated that:

'The choice of case-study involves buying greater detail and likely accuracy of information about particular cases at the cost of being less able to make effective generalisations to a larger population of cases'. (Hammersley, 1992, p186)

From a positivist position, the generalising of findings might give rise to concerns (Berg, 2007). However, such concerns appear to have been adequately addressed by Bent Flyvbjerg in his 2006 article, *'Five Misunderstandings About Case-Study Research'*. Reviewing the literature, he identified and addresses the main areas of concern about generalising findings from a single case-study to other areas. These are:

- i. Theoretical knowledge is more valuable than practical knowledge
- ii. One cannot generalize from a single case, therefore, the single-case-study cannot contribute to scientific development
- iii. The case-study is most useful for generating hypotheses, whereas other methods are more suitable for hypotheses testing and theory building
- iv. The case-study contains a bias toward verification
- v. It is often difficult to summarize specific case studies.

The start of his argument is the claim that a *'case-study cannot provide reliable information about the broader'* (Abercrombie, Hill and Turner, 1984, p. 34) and, regarding the production of knowledge:

'have such a total absence of control as to be of almost no scientific value. . . Any appearance of absolute knowledge, or intrinsic knowledge about singular isolated objects, is found to be illusory upon analysis..'

(Campbell & Stanley, 1966, pp. 6-7, cited in Flyvbjerg, 2006, p. 220).

(Flyvbjerg notes that Campbell and Stanley retracted this in later work).

Within the article, Flyvbjerg systematically examines these five concerns and addresses the misunderstandings surrounding them. In doing so, he provides a well-argued case for the production of knowledge and the generalisation of findings from a single case-study to other sites. Such a position is supported by both Stake (1995) and Yin (2003) and one that, as researcher, I found persuasive. In this way, the generalising of the results of this thesis to other sites are in line with Perakyla (1997) who, when discussing her own study,

made a distinction between the generalising of results as descriptions of, not what other sites do '*....but were generalizable as descriptions as what any [comparable site] can do...*' Perakyla (1997. pp 215-16, cited in Silverman, 2002, p. 109).

Professional Relevance

In Chapter 1, the Introduction, the study identified a number of areas where it was considered that the research could make a contribution. In addressing these issues, the thesis returns to Silverman's (2000) assessment criteria for qualitative research:

'How can valid, reliable and conceptually defined qualitative studies contribute to practice and policy by revealing something new to practitioners, clients, and/or policy-makers.'

(Silverman, 2000: 284)

In the previous section, issues of validity and reliability were raised which leaves the issue of 'revealing something new' to be considered. Arguably, the wider contribution the thesis makes to educational research may be regarded as the *raison d'être* for conducting the research. In addition to illustrating participants' experiences, the identifying of data that suggested support for post-critical incident training based upon a humanist learning approach, the thesis made additional contributions to understanding workplace training and educational research in general. This section considers the issues of professional relevance that were identified in the Introduction. They were:

- Understanding the post-critical incident support training needs of staff working in a 'Post September 11th World'
- Contributing to the research literature, specifically, the lack of research into training needs in coping with a post-critical incident within the workplace
- The timely nature of research and application to other settings,
- Researching sensitive areas.

Understanding the post-critical incident support training needs of staff working in a 'Post-Sept 11th. World':

As the results demonstrated, employees perceive themselves as potentially having to cope with the uncertainty and potential threat of a major critical incident, such as terrorist attacks. Over the last few years such uncertainty has had to be assimilated into the routine of daily living. Previously, discussions on vocational training, life-long learning, and globalisation of education, have not needed to address such issues. The study illustrated some of the effects of a critical incident. In doing so, it has used participants' own accounts to demonstrate the link between the workplace and social life.

Throughout the thesis the case for adopting a humanistic learning approach to post-critical support training has been argued. The results evidenced that participants supported such training. There was also a recognition that the emphasis within such training should be on enabling participants to develop self-awareness. For example, understanding crises and the effects that trauma may have on themselves and others.

Contributing to the research literature, specifically, the lack of research of training needs in coping with a post-critical incident within the workplace:

In reviewing the literature no educational research that dealt with training needs within the area of post-critical incident support was identified. Associated literature was dispersed within a number of academic disciplines. The thesis makes a contribution to the research literature concerning post-critical support training. In doing so, it has helped to question existing workplace training hegemony and to consider the purpose for offering training. It has illustrated the case for employees' needs to be considered and not just those of the employer. Therefore, it seeks to be of benefit to workplace trainers and educationalists engaging with the private sector as well as the Organisation.

The timely nature of research and application of findings to other settings:

Earlier, it was noted that the results, arising as they did from one case-study setting, a large financial institution, may not transfer to other setting. Nevertheless, in the light of world events, many organisations are being requested to make provision for business continuity. The study therefore might benefit trainers in other settings who have to make provision for post-critical incident support. It offers a rationale for training to be based on a wider model than human capital theory.

Researching sensitive areas:

Within social care, counselling, health, social work, education and disaster management, the associated literature has long recognised the emotional vulnerability of those who need to be questioned or interviewed. This issue is not extensively dealt with in other literature, for example, business management. In part, this is due to the kind of interviews being conducted, for example, recruitment and selection or staff appraisals. Whilst staff appraisal interviews will invariably include an area relating to training needs, the focus is usually on the identification of suitable courses, not the training need *per se* (Critten, 1993). The practical instrumentalist/rationalist needs of a person's job role tend to be addressed rather than the emotional needs both of which are important to a person's sense of work identity (Colley *et al*, 2003). What the study illustrated was the connection between a person's practical needs and their emotional needs (Maslow, 1968). As such, the researcher, when interviewing, needs to give consideration to both elements. In this way the study adds to the body of literature about researching personal areas wherein data needs to be gathered in a sensitive manner. In doing so, it recognised the contribution that participants made, and the potential risk they took with their own mental health, in taking part.

Conclusion

The objective of the thesis was to consider implications for post-critical incident support workplace training after the post-September 11th 2001 attack on the World Trade Building in New York. In developing the argument, the event has been used as a milestone in order to explore how best an organisation might develop training to support employees in the aftermath of a critical incident. It was Chairman Mao who, reputedly, when asked, '*what were his thoughts on the French Revolution?*' supposedly replied that, '*it was too soon to say*'. This same sentiment may equally apply to considering changes within workplace training.

There is no dispute that the attack on the New York World Trade Center was a major critical incident. Such incidents affect people well beyond those who had some immediate direct association with the tragic event. At both a social and individual level it is possible to identify some of the immediate effects regarding personal tragedies such as loss of family, colleagues and friends suffered by victims of the event (Myers, 1994). However, there are other effects that remain hidden, unacknowledged or dormant. With critical incidents, it is these long-term, hidden effects rather than the more immediate ones, where, echoing Chairman Mao, it is too early to say what change they might be heralding. This is particularly so for businesses who, in the event of a critical incident, may lose some of their key personnel. As evidenced by the reports of 9/11, (Danieli, Brom and Sills, 2005) in such instances, staff may be incapacitated, suffer great stress, or be traumatised by the event. In turn, these societal and individual tragedies have impacted on wider national and international economies.

Whilst the full effects of critical incidents such as 9/11 may often be hidden, for educationalists involved in VET and workplace training, it is important to recognise the increased stress which they generate. This is for two important reasons.

First, for their general well-being and mental health people, need to feel they

have some degree of control over their lives and are not merely passive spectators. Although writing pre-9/11, Ife's (1999) comment might be regarded as reflecting many aspects of the post 9/11 workplace:

'We live in a world characterised by 'a lack of predictability and permanency, by weak and transitory structures, and by alternatives being constantly deconstructed and reconstructed within a context of fragmentation and difference.' (Ife, 1999, p. 214)

Training has the potential to give a personal sense of control. It can help give meaning to people who have been thrown into sudden confusion or who are struggling to understand the erratic behaviour of colleagues.

Secondly, in formulating a training response the pressure on budgets requires resources to be used effectively and efficiently. The greater the understanding of the effects of critical incidents, then the better people might be supported to best cope with it. Ultimately, the main challenge for trainers continues to be the perennial one of how best to equip delegates to put their learning into practice. This is arguably, the main objective of the training. However, as Collins (1996) has noted, not all trainers are 'learner' centred and therefore:

'..need to think about whose interests they are really serving and to what extent their programming is in keeping with the adult education principles they espouse.' (Collins, 1996. p.89)

The issue for trainers is, how best to use training to promote the emotional well-being of people who have to work within such an increasingly insecure work environment. A balance is required between conveying a programme's potential contribution to staff welfare and an organisation's business needs, whilst avoiding increasing individual or group anxiety. Again, such training, the thesis has suggested, is best suited to a humanistic learning approach. Adopting such an approach, as argued, has implications for other areas of training. In particular, for post-critical incident training, it requires different criteria for offering training from that based on skills or knowledge enhancement and, as such, presents a dilemma for trainers. As with many other insecure situations the issue for trainers, indeed managers in general, is

whether to embrace change and plan for it, or to wait and try to respond to events as they occur.

'The loss of the stable state means that our society and all of its institutions are in continuing processes of transformation. We cannot expect new stable states that will endure even for our own lifetimes. We must learn to understand, guide, influence and manage these transformations. We must make the capacity for undertaking them integral to ourselves and to our institutions. We must, in other words, become adept at learning'. (Schon, 1973, p.32)

The lesson from 9/11 and other such critical incidents, is that often there is not the opportunity to manage the transformations that may be needed.

Finally, leaving aside the business and educational rationale for post-critical incident support training, as evidenced in the results chapter, there is another important reason for offering such training; to address the emotional anguish expressed by participants. The provision of training can be justified on the grounds of common humanity and social capital. The literature relating to managing a critical incident identifies the benefits of people understanding the effects of such incidents.

In supporting the provision of training it could be suggested that the 'normalising' of such training is crucial. If the adoption of a training solution is to be successful, it has to be presented as part of the culture of the Organisation. This, potentially, may present problems for the Organisation, for as noted in the literature review, one of the effects of trauma is the creation of a sense of losing control, that is, being plunged from a predictable, ordered, world to one of chaos and uncertainty. In contrast to this, the general competitive nature of the Organisation's culture favours an image of predictability and certainty. Employees, as people in general, like to feel that they are in control and that they are perceived to be so by others (Garland, 1998). It is images of 'strength and coping', not one of 'weakness and need' that people favour. Therefore, in undertaking post-critical incident training, employees, as part of their development of self-awareness, may need to explore these more negative images of 'self'.

The benefit of post-critical incident training for employees is that it offers the

opportunity to understand 'the normality of seemingly 'abnormal' trauma reactions and Post-traumatic Stress Disorder. Such training potentially enables a person to understand better what is happening to them (Trimble, 1985). In addition, to appreciate trauma, sufferers may appear to be coping but be in denial of their condition. For the Organisation, post-critical incident training might give those involved with the provision of post-critical incident support an explanation as to why a person cannot or will not commit to the specialist help they needed. It also offers the Organisation the opportunity to demonstrate concern for their employees' welfare.

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Figure 1: Declension of increased stress - moving from coping to trauma and unable to cope

Figure 2: Stressful events and responses in crisis intervention

Figure 3: Common Traumatic Stress

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Appendix 1 Management Summary of the Training Needs Analysis

Background	<p>World events, such as the September 11th incident, and increased occurrences of violence in the branch network have led the Organisation to review its management of critical incidents. In formulating its response, the Organisation wants to make staff welfare a central factor.</p> <p>Paralleled with the development of business contingency plans and other critical incident initiatives, it has been the Bank's desire to further develop the welfare arrangements in the area of 'critical debriefing', i.e. to support individuals or groups of people following a major traumatic event causing emotional impact. The key requirement is to enable individuals to recover from the traumatic event, supported by line managers or other work colleagues who are aware of the facilities and services available.</p>
Analysis	<p>The purpose of the analysis, as stated in the terms of reference was:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">To identify and clarify those people groups who are most likely to be in need of supportTo consider likely scenarios and the best method(s) for providing 'on the spot' and on-going supportTo review the existing support materials and services, including the Passport to Personal Safety and Post-Raid CounsellingTo review the signposting of the existing materials and support areasTo conduct a 'gap analysis' between materials and services provided and the identified needsTo make recommendations for solutions to remedy any shortfall. <p>Scope</p> <p>The scope of the project, as stated in the terms of reference, was to investigate and consider options to improve:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Materials availableSignposting real and perceived needs for support and/or counselling for individuals, teams and nation-wideProvision of recommendations to provide a generic solution to meet the needs of individuals, with flexibility to tailor the solution to meet specific business unit needsRecommendations for any HR processes to support the solutionRecommendations regarding signposting are considered essential to ensure clarity as to what support is available for particular staff needs, before, during and after a major traumatic eventConfirmation that V are able to support any increase in demand for their services.

The population to be considered includes those the Organisation group sites in the UK and offshore included in the HR Operating Model.

Outside of scope

Outlining design specifications, production and delivery of any solutions recommended by this HR Study Report.

Training recommendations that required large IT resources

Methods of Investigation

Primary Research

A group of twenty-two participants took part in the study. Although, numerically this represented only a small percentage of the total workforce, all participants had experiences of being involved in a critical incident, either directly or indirectly and/or had involvement in the planning and delivering of post-incident service provision. The degree of experience, knowledge, and range of posts represented in the sample supported the validation of the findings.

As the study centred on staff perceptions of critical incidents, it was appropriate to take a qualitative research approach. The method used to gather data was a semi-formal interview. The data was analysed following recognised practices.

Secondary Research

Secondary research was based on the scrutiny of documentation relating to training and the managing of critical incidents. This included, an examination of staff guides, particularly the Passport to Personal Safety, and post-incident support material (the Trauma booklet issued by V). The data held by HR on the evaluation of counselling services and the Incident Management and Co-ordination Procedures were also reviewed and used to clarify the responses given by participants during interview.

Findings

Key issues and risks - The Project

Identification of people groups who are most likely to be in need of support

Potentially all staff are at risk of being involved in a critical incident and therefore are in need of support.

Groups differ in the probability of an incident occurring.

Organisation network staff have a greater probability of being involved in a critical incident than staff in other parts of the organisation. This does not diminish the need for support services in other sectors, for as recent world events have demonstrated, these can be the most destructive as regards to injury and loss of life.

Likely scenarios and the best method(s) for providing 'on the spot' and on-going support

Participants' understanding of critical incidents tended to reflect their work-settings, for example, branch network staff were very conscious of the risk of raids. All staff interviewed were aware of the potential threats to business from terrorist attacks and natural disasters, such as flooding.

Participants evidenced the importance of two main sources of support:

The support given by senior managers following the reporting of a critical incident. Of particular importance was the division of support between the practical aspects, (ensuring building safety for example) and the personal needs of staff. Incidents were managed best when the Facilities Incident Teams (FIT) concentrated on the practical issues and senior managers concentrated on 'inter-personal' aspects

Counselling services, both the critical debriefing following an incident and on-going support.

All sections of the organisation recognised the importance of this support and evidenced how it has benefited both staff teams and individual members of staff.

The Bank's own evaluation of the service that V offers evidences, that in the event of a major critical incident occurring, they would be able to provide the degree of support required. It further notes that, in the event of a critical incident occurring on the scale of 11th September, national resources might not be sufficient to meet the demands for support. The USA itself had to request international support.

Existing Support Material and Support Services (including signposting of the existing materials and support areas)

Support Material

Current support services and materials provided by the Organisation are good, as evidenced by participants. Particularly noteworthy were:

The usefulness of The Passport to Personal Safety and the Chart setting out staff procedures in the event of a raid.

Participants found that the revised format of the Passport to Personal Safety and other documentation was user-friendly, in that the language was direct and free from jargon.

The layout of the Passport to Personal Safety and other documentation made it easy to locate information that was required. The 'Incident Management Action List' (December 2002) produced by HR section, signposts the need to consider the welfare of managers and carers.

One participant thought that The Passport to Personal Safety was a 'little too big' and could not be easily accommodated in a pocket.

This inhibited the Passport being carried at all times.

'Preparation for being a witness in court' support service, although

signposted in the Passport to Personal Safety, was difficult to access.

The tone used in the critical incident procedures assumes that staff will be able to perform their duties to the required standard. It does not reflect the negative psychological effects that trauma can have on the performance of those dealing with an incident. This includes both those who perform 'beyond the call of duty' as well as those who are not able to. In both cases there is a real possibility that some staff will need long-term support.

Counselling

All participants recognised the importance of there being a counselling service available.

The counselling services were easy to access.

Staff are able to access the service when they had difficulties that did not directly arise from work but was affected by it.

As evidenced in the Bank's own service evaluation, in the event of a major incident, Validium, the current service provider, would have the resources to cope. (N.B. as demonstrated by the event of 11th September, an incident of such magnitude would require international aid).

Criticisms of the services were related to the style of individual counsellors and not to the service per se.

Human Resources Support

The HR section produces good clear policies and guidance on the managing and handling of critical incidents.

Identification of 'gaps' within current service provision

Within the Business Continuity Planning (BCP) teams, there is no one nominated person (champion) with training in understanding trauma to monitor the effects of stress of those involved in managing the incident.

Lack of preparation for senior managers in identifying trauma and being able to offer initial support for people involved in a critical incident.

Ensuring that people follow procedures during a critical incident, particularly in accounting for staff.

Poor communication in joint planning and exercises between FIT (Facilities Incident Team) teams and BCP.

Line-managers not feeling adequately prepared for communicating sensitive information.

Staff involved in an incident are not obliged to be screened for counselling support. Although some staff will not require support or want support, the Organisation needs to ensure compliance with the demands of health and safety requirements.

Key issues and risks - Training

Compliance with Procedures

Whilst staff are familiar with critical incident procedures, there is a need to ensure that they are up to speed in their compliance and to identify and remedy any local gaps.

Because of the low probability of a critical incident occurring, it is difficult to raise staff awareness of health and safety issues. There is a risk that, if this is not done in a sensitive manner, it might increase staff anxieties and not their awareness.

Training in Post-Incident Support

Training is needed to fill the gaps identified in current service provision. In particular senior managers need to be able to recognise the effects of trauma, appropriateness of support, and how to deal with people in a sensitive manner

While generic training has the advantage of developing shared practices and values, there is a risk that 'a one size fits all' approach might fail to address the concerns of managers at different levels or working in different sections.

Risks associated with particular training solutions are addressed in the individual recommendations

Conclusions

In commissioning the project, the Organisation is recognising that staff at all levels, need support when involved with critical incidents.

The analysis identified the needs of different staff groups and their perceptions of critical incidents and illustrated examples of good practice. Direct services, such as counselling, availability of managers and the work undertaken by BCP and FIT teams all evidence this. There is evidence of counselling services covering wider welfare issues beyond those of raids.

Post-incident services are backed-up and supported by the personal safety literature, critical incident procedures, and continual policy developments in the area of BCP.

The overall picture therefore is a positive one, but needs strengthening in:

supporting workers (usually senior managers) to understand the nature of trauma.

in the screening of staff for counselling following a major traumatic incident.

Tightening up on existing procedures, communication and services.

The recommendations made in the following section address these issues.

Recommendations

Resolve Non-Training Issues

It is recommended:

Within the BCP teams, there should be a nominated person (champion) with training in understanding trauma to monitor the effects of stress on those involved in managing the incident.

In the event of a major incident, all those involved should be screened for counselling. This obligation would enable the Organisation to discharge its Health and Safety obligations and demonstrate its concern for the welfare of staff.

That the requirement for collaborative working between FIT and BCP teams in planning and joint exercises be made more explicit. That the availability of certain additional support services, such as witness support, be signposted more clearly.

The accreditation for Fire Marshals training. This would enhance the reputation of the Organisation and also help raise the profile of Fire Marshals.

In order to test that staff are 'up to speed' in the implementation of the procedures for dealing with critical incidents policy, a training exercise is recommended. As a number of participants raised concerns about accounting for staff and taking a roll-call after a building has been evacuated, I would recommend that this matter should be the focus of the exercise.

Communication

In order to improve existing communications it is recommended that:

The tone used in the BCP procedures should reflect the chaos that critical incident might produce.

The guidance literature should recognise that in a critical incident 'best practice' might not be possible, only 'good enough practice'.

In order to maintain accurate information, staff should be emailed a regular reminder from HR to update personal and next-of-kin records. This should help in the accounting for and the contacting of staff if a critical incident were to occur.

Training The following training is recommended:

Training in the understanding of trauma and 'Crisis Theory' be made available for managers implementing BCP or dealing with people during and after a critical incident.

Training for disseminating best practice in post-critical incident support.

Training in the giving of sensitive news or information..

Training recommendation (A) addresses the requirement for a generic training solution for all managers dealing with critical incidents.

Training recommendations, (B) and (C) are included as they address the concerns raised by participants during the cause of investigation.

In view of this distinction, potential risks are identified under each recommendation.

A. Training in the understanding of trauma and 'Crisis Theory' for managers implementing BCP or dealing with people during and

after a critical incident

Senior managers (Grade Band 3-4) tend to be the first persons contacted when a critical incident occurs. In order to give the initial support required, they need to be aware of the nature of trauma and how to deal with people in crisis. They also need to recognise that the size or nature of the event is no clear guide as to how people might be affected in both the immediate and long-term.

Audience:

Senior managers in Grade Band 3-4, approximately 6615 in total. (Members in this group tend to be the first people contacted in the event of a critical incident).

Objectives:

By the end of the training candidates will be able to:

Identify a critical incident.

Understand the difference between 'stress', 'crisis' and 'trauma'.

Understand the effects that the incident might have on themselves

others

Recognise some of the main symptoms of trauma.

Be able to offer some initial support following a critical incident.

Delivery Method

The use of a CD is recommended which has the advantages of:
Offering a more flexible approach to learning. Candidates are able to access and work through the training material at their own pace.
Training material can be updated and disseminated quickly.

Although the training product might only have a 'shelf-life' of three years, it does enable a three-year training programme to be planned, which facilitates budgeting.

It enables all candidates to have a common training of the effects of trauma. This will aid the development of a consistency of approach to the managing of critical incidents

Risks

There is a risk that, in offering a generic solution to all managers, specific sectional needs might not be met.

B. Disseminating Best Practice in Post-Critical Incident Support

While some branch network Area/Senior managers have developed a considerable amount of expertise in dealing with post-critical incidents in a sensitive manner, there is evidence that others have not. Training to identify and promote best practice, would enable consistency of approach and aid managers when having to deal with such incidents.

Objectives:

After the end of the training, candidates will be able to offer initial support to those involved in a critical incident by:

Being aware of the emotional and practical needs of staff following a critical incident.

Recognising the strengths and weaknesses of one's own interpersonal skills.

Understanding the need for and to work with specialist support services.

Recognising the potential increase in stress that the situation might be having on them .

Being able to reflect on and identify within their own practice factors that promote good practice, and factors that are barriers to good practice.

Delivery Method:

A workshop on identifying best practice in post-incident support using experiential learning.

Some candidates find interpersonal skills very difficult. In such instances, direct training is not the best approach and candidates gain more from experiential learning.

A workshop to disseminate good practice gives the opportunity for all candidates to reflect on their practice and learn from it.

Risks

There are risks that:

not all participants can benefit from inter-personal skills training.

The audience might be too narrow in its scope. Although participants from other areas of the Organisation gave no evidence that would indicate that they considered this training was needed, this might reflect more the staffs' lack of experience of critical incidents rather than of their real need.

C. Training in the giving of sensitive news or information

(Given the high numbers of staff who might potentially be included for this training programme, compared with the limited opportunity to put the training into practice, the recommendation is not a high priority within the overall critical debriefing training programmes. Its inclusion reflects the concerns raised by a number of participants although not all were directly related to critical debriefing).

People involved in managing a critical incident expressed concern as to how best to speak to people, when having to impart any sad or anxiety provoking information.

Audience:

Line-managers, who as part of their duties may need to pass sensitive information or news to staff or other relevant people.

Objectives:

To identify components of communication

To understand the effects that the information might have on the person receiving it

To understand the effects that passing such information might have

on the person giving the information

To develop the communication skills of the candidate

Delivery Method:

The use of a CD is recommended which has the advantages of:

Enabling communication skills to be demonstrated.

Supply any underpinning knowledge.

Can be used to promote discussion.

Offering a more flexible approach to learning by enabling candidates to access and work through the training material at their own pace.

Training material can be updated and disseminated quickly.

Although, the training product might only have a 'shelf-life' of three years, it does enable a three-year training programme to be planned, which facilitates budgeting.

Being available to a wide audience

Risk

There is a risk, that the training might be obsolete or forgotten before candidates have the opportunity to use it.

Assumptions

For all the recommended training solutions it is assumed that: a suitable venue can be identified.

that training time will be allocated to candidates

that any necessary equipment and training facilitators will be available.

Next steps

The next stage is for the author to present the findings to the Organisation and the following personnel and university representatives to review the report:

Bob Senior

Phil Carter

Lucy Walsh

The report will form the basis of the feedback to Michael McRae-Steele and will be used to inform the design phase of the project.

Appendix 2 Contrasts between formal and informal workplace learning

	Formal/'on-the-job' learning	Informal workplace learning
1	Formal learning is intentional. Teachers/trainers are in control in both formal learning in education institutions and in on-the-job training.	Learning often unintentional Learner is in control (if anyone is) in workplace learning.
2	Learning/ training is prescribed by formal curriculum, competency standards, learning outcomes, etc.	No formal curriculum or prescribed outcomes
3	Learning outcomes are largely predictable.	Outcomes are much less predictable.
4	Learning is largely explicit (the learner is expected to be able to articulate what has been learnt, e.g. in a written examination or in answer to teacher questioning; trainees are required to perform appropriate activities as a result of their training).	Learning is often implicit or tacit (learners are commonly unaware of the extent of their learning).
5	The emphasis is on teaching/training and on the content and structure of what is taught/trained (largely as a result of points 1–4).	The emphasis is on the experiences of the learner-as-worker: not a concept to be taken lightly, given the power of self-directed learning in making sense of one's workplace as well as one's own life at work.
6	Usually the focus is on the individual learning.	Tends to be collaborative and/or collegial, despite the current policy and rhetorical emphasis on self-direction and individual experience, noted in point 5. This sociality occurs because workplaces are by definition socio-culturally located, and their consequently shared and site-specific experiences collectively available for educative purposes. Thus, workers invest much of their personal identities in work, and find these defined and re-defined by the local culture – by "the way we do things here".
7	Learning in formal classrooms is uncontextualised, i.e. it emphasises general principles rather than their specific applications.	While on-the-job training is typically somewhat contextualised, even here the general is emphasised, e.g. training for general industry standards. However, workplace learning is by its nature highly contextualised, as outlined in point 6, and must include emotive, cognitive and social dimensions of workers' experiences in advancing their learning.
8	Learning seen typically in terms of theory (or knowledge) and practice (application of theory and knowledge).	Seems to be appropriately viewed as seamless know how, or practical wisdom.
9	Learning knowledge typically is viewed as more difficult than learning skills (thus, e.g. more teaching effort is invested usually in the first as against the second).	Learning, viewed as the development of competence or capability via a suitably structured sequence of experience, does not operate with the knowledge/skills distinction.

(Adapted from Hager, 1998)

Appendix 3 Four Areas of Common Traumatic Stress

1. EMOTIONAL EFFECTS	2. COGNITIVE EFFECTS
shock	impaired concentration
terror	impaired decision making ability
irritability	memory impairment
blame	disbelief
anger	confusion
guilt	nightmares
grief or sadness	decreased self-esteem
emotional numbing	decreased self-efficacy
helplessness	self-blame
loss of pleasure derived from familiar activities	intrusive thoughts/memories
difficulty feeling happy	worry
difficulty experiencing loving feelings	dissociation (e.g., tunnel vision, dreamlike or "spacey" feeling)
3. PHYSICAL EFFECTS	4. INTERPERSONAL EFFECTS
fatigue, exhaustion	increased relational conflict
insomnia	social withdrawal
cardiovascular strain	reduced relational intimacy
startle response	alienation
hyper-arousal	impaired work performance
increased physical pain	impaired school performance
reduced immune response	decreased satisfaction
headaches	distrust
gastrointestinal upset	externalization of blame
decreased appetite	externalization of vulnerability
decreased libido	feeling abandoned/rejected
vulnerability to illness	over protectiveness

(Source: National Centre for Post Traumatic Stress Disorder Web Page accessed Feb 2007)

Appendix 4 Golan Model of Crisis:

- every person, group and organisation has crises during their lives
- *hazardous events* are major problems or a series of difficulties which start crises
- hazardous events may be *anticipated* (e.g. adolescence, marriage, moving house) or *unanticipated* (e.g. death, divorce, redundancy, environmental disasters such as fires)
- *vulnerable states* exist when hazardous events cause people to lose their *equilibrium* which is their capacity to deal with things that happen to them
- when a person's equilibrium is disturbed, they try out their usual ways of dealing with problems; if these fail they will try new problem-solving methods
- *tension and stress* arise with each failure
- a *precipitating factor* on top of unresolved problems adds to the tension and causes a disorganised state of *active crisis*
- precipitating factors may be presented to the person offering support as the victims main problem but these are *not* the crisis, only a point in the sequence; *(the clue to this is often immense emotion associated with apparently minor events)*
- Stressful events may be seen in one of three ways: Threat, Loss, and Challenges.
- Each with its own typical response, as shown below

<u>STRESSFULL EVENT</u>		<u>RESPONSE</u>
1.	Threat-----	Anxiety
2.	Loss-----	Depression
3.	Challenges ----- (Hope, expectation and problem solving)	Mild Anxiety (More attempts at problem solving)
Stressful events and responses in crisis intervention (Adapted from Golan, 1978)		

- the more problems successfully dealt with in the past, the more problem-solving strategies will be available, so states of active crisis are less likely; unsuccessful problem-solving in the past leads to people falling into active crisis often and finding it hard to escape

- all crises reach resolution in 6-8 weeks
- people in crisis are more open to being helped than those who are not; intervention in crisis is more successful than at other times, and
- in 'reintegration' after active crisis, people become set in their newly learned ways of solving problems, so learning effective problem-solving during the crisis improves coping capacity in the future.

Appendix 5 Critical Debriefing: Prompts

Code:
Date:
Job Title
i. Current Role and Service
1. Length of service
2. As part of your current role have you any responsibilities for supporting or supervision staff?
3. If so, how many?
4. The range of staff
ii. Critical Incidents and support
5. What would you say would be a major critical event for you or your staff?
6. Have you, or your staff, been involved in any incidents?
7. Could you tell me a little about the event?
8. What happened later? For example, was counselling or other support offered?
9. Are you familiar with the Guide to Personal Safety?
10. Do you find it useful?
11. Do you find it easy to use?
12. Would you make any changes or recommendation as to what should be included? (other documentation: awareness, usefulness)
iii. Support Network
13. What support networks do you have as regards the organisation? (For example being able to contact senior managers for advice?) (Links with other branches or parts of the system that you could call on if required?)
14. What support networks do you have as regards the staff? For example, movement sheets, Accessibility to managers etc. out of hours?
15. Without being too alarmist, if a major event was to occur, staff being kidnapped, terrorist attack based on existing planning what do you feel would be the major problems you would have to deal with?
16. Do you feel that there is enough support to deal with a major event
17. Is there anything within existing services or training that you would like to see extended? Or New ones provided?
18. Business continuity Planning: Are you aware of the BCP?
19. Do you feel it is useful to know that the Organisation has such systems in place?
iv. For HR and Training Managers and Services Suppliers
20. How would you describe the learning approach taken to training?
21. How far do you feel human capital theory influences training policy? (note: other forms of capital)
22. What do you consider a) the advantages: b) the disadvantages, of post-critical incident training? (note: resource implications; 'one size fits all')

Appendix 6 Participant Information for Critical Debriefing Project

Gender	Role	Location
Male	Senior Manager Business Continuity Management	House Bristol
Male	Senior Manager, Operational Risk & BCM	House, London
Male	Operational Risk & BCM	London
Male	Branch Director	Bolton Group
Female	Customer Relationship Manager	Wales Contact Centre
Female	Team Leader	Wales Contact Centre
Male	Group Facilities Management	Brighton
Male	Area Manager Fraud & Operational Risk	West Midlands Area Directors Office
Female	Clerical	Hindley
Female	Senior Team Manager	Newport Contact Centre
Female	Customer Relationship Manager	Scotland Contact Centre
Female	Agent	Swansea
Male	Private Finance	Jersey
Female	Team Leader	Newport
Female	Ops, Risk & Contingency	Birmingham
Male	Manager	C H
Male	Branch Manager	T
Male)	Area Manager Fraud & Operational Risk	North West Area Office
Male	Group Facilities Management	London
Female	Senior Branch Manager	Banbury
Female	Branch Director	Sutton
Female	Personal Finance	Isle of Man

Appendix 7 Stakeholders and additional Participants contacted for information

Critical Debriefing Project		
1	Names	Area of Interest
2	IE	Relationship manager with Specialist Services
3	RH	University(Training Section)
4	JH	HR Health and Safety
5	DK	Business Continuity
6	MS	Specialist Support Services
7	AC	HR Consultant, Personnel Supplier Management
8	AT	HR Consultant, Personnel Supplier Management
9	VT	HR Shared Services
10	LW	University(Training Section)
	JW	Specialist Support Services